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(1714-1820)

BY

SUSAN CUNNINGTON

"AUTHOR OF
"HOME AND STATE" "STORIES FROM DANTE" ETC.

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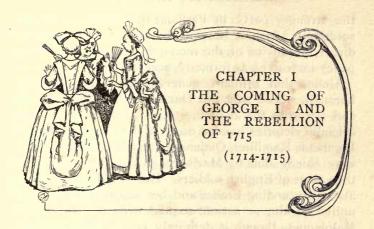
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HE reign of Queen Anne (1702-1714) had been a troubled one. At home there were religious quarrels; and, though the formal Union of Scotland with England took place, there was no heart-whole sympathy between the Scots and the English. Abroad, the great struggle known as the War of the Spanish Succession absorbed much of the country's energies. At first sight it might seem that England should have had but little concern with the Continental war, but there were two great reasons which compelled her to take an active part in it. One was the possible union of France and Spain in a strong alliance which would destroy the just balance of power in Europe; and the other the need to check France in her countenance of the Stuart exiles and her ready support of their claim to the English throne.

During those years there became established the system of Party Government; and the custom of the selection of the principal ministers of State from

the stronger party in Parliament, instead of by the sovereign. Also it became the duty of ministers to direct the advice of the monarch in matters of State

policy instead of, as formerly, accepting it.

Under that brilliant general, the Duke of Marlborough, whose wife, the Duchess Sarah, was a close and favourite friend of the Queen, there were gained splendid victories, handed down in the ringing names of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet, which were chiefly due to Marlborough's military skill and the valour of English soldiers. But the allies, who were also withstanding France and her supporters, were not united in aim or action, so that even the victory at Malplaquet, though it definitely crippled France, was not absolutely decisive. The war, therefore, dragged on from 1708 to 1713, with its continual demands for men, supplies and money; till, worn with the strain, people at home began to grumble at the taxes, to resent the interference with trade and peaceful pursuits, and to blame Marlborough's later methods.

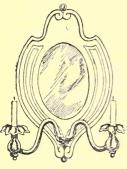
Also there existed a condition of things which seems strange to us to-day, though it disappeared only slowly; this was the holding by the Duke of Marlborough of the two very distinct offices of general and leader of the war forces, and statesman and principal adviser of the Queen. Hence when his discretion began to be questioned there was given a handy opportunity to his political opponents to work against him. The two recognized parties were the Whigs and the Tories; but besides these in Parliament there were a few members who held themselves aloof from both parties, and were known, scoffingly, as the "Queen's friends." Marlborough, and his son-in-law and henchman, Sidney

Godolphin, had no sympathy with the "High Tories," as the extreme men were called, and accepted the Whig majority in the House of Commons as supporters of their policy; and by degrees more and more of the high offices of State were filled with Whig sympathizers. Thus, contrary to our present tradition, it seemed that the war party consisted of the Whigs, whilst the Tories, as critics, encouraged the country to clamour for peace.

There was, however, a strong feeling that the very security of the English throne depended upon checking the power of France, since her countenance of the Stuart exiles was a dangerous influence; and even the reaction of feeling after a prolonged war, with only a few brilliant victories, might not have been strong enough to replace the Whig majority with a Tory one.

But there were other troubles. The Whigs were largely supported by the Dissenters; the Tories were strongly intolerant of lessening the claims of the Church of England, and, indeed, many of them would have liked again to see the penal Acts against schism in working. When Dr Sacheverell, rector of the famous collegiate church of St Saviour, Southwark, preached a strongly political sermon from the pulpit of St Paul's Cathedral, and attacked dissent, regretted the Toleration Acts, and condemned the Whig statesmen who showed themselves so lukewarm for the Church. the Government retaliated by impeaching him. compelling him to appear before the House of Lords, and stand his trial, they hoped to have it clearly shown that they were themselves upholding the principles of the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, and to win over popular feeling.

The result of the trial was that the lawyers in the House of Lords, mostly Whigs as they were, whilst pronouncing the preacher guilty, passed so light a



Candle Bracket

sentence upon him that it almost destroyed the force of their verdict. His sermons were to be burnt, and he was suspended from preaching for three years. So far from strengthening the Whig Government, this proceeding brought such popular disfavour upon it that her Majesty resolved to dismiss her ministers. She was the more willing to do this as her friendship with Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough, had run a stormy

course, and she desired her removal from her person. With the Duke out of office this end would be accomplished; so that in 1710 a strong Tory Ministry took up the reins.

Perhaps it was a feature of the sly and tortuous, instead of frank and open, political methods of the period that the new Government preferred to work secretly for peace, by approaching France and Spain separately, rather than to declare plainly that the war must end. Their majority in the House of Lords was so small that the Queen was advised to create twelve Tory peers, to ensure the Government's measures being carried, and she did so.

We remember that the preceding reign was unique in that both William and Mary were "regnant"—that is, neither was merely the royal consort of the other. Queen Anne, however, had a more than usually lonely position as reigning sovereign. Her husband, George

of Denmark, Duke of Cumberland, "Prince Consort," sat and voted in the House of Lords, and on some matters had strong feelings, which he expressed in broken English. But in no way could he help his Queen in her regal duties. With the departure of the haughty Duchess of Marlborough from her presence Anne had raised another lady to the proud position of friend and confidant, a Mrs Masham, a connexion of Harley, the leading Tory minister; and she attended her royal mistress even in the meetings of her Council, and, we are told, took a prominent part in the discussions.

There was also another source of trouble at home. The accession of Queen Anne, one of the Stuart line, had been pleasing to the Scots, and the complete reunion of Scotland with England, by having a joint parliament, was attempted immediately after she came to the throne. But, strong as was their attachment to their royal house, the Scottish people demanded to be placed in a position of equality with the English, and to have removed the various trade restrictions which had been placed upon them by a jealous parliament. So strong was this feeling that the Scottish Parliament in 1713 passed an "Act of Security," by which it was ordered that the successor to the Scottish throne should not be the same person as the successor to the English. Recognizing the opportunity which this gave for an attempted restoration of the Stuart exiles to the neighbour kingdom, the Government gave way on the commercial points, and thus Scotland gained her position of independent alliance with England. Sixteen Scottish peers and forty-five members in the Commons were its representatives in Parliament; but she retained

her own Common Law—differing in many details from the English—and her own Church.

As the years passed, another anxiety oppressed the Queen. Of her many children, none lived beyond childhood, so that there was again no direct heir to the throne of Great Britain. Not unnaturally her personal wishes were that James Edward, son of James II, known derisively in later years as the "Old Pretender," should succeed her. Her minister, Henry St John, Viscount Bolingbroke, at first secretly, and afterwards openly, sympathized with her, and indeed began negotiating with the Pretender. The peril of a Stuart restoration helped to bind together the defeated Whig party, and many of the more moderate Tories joined them.

Meanwhile the Continental war had dragged on, with England sharing in it but half-heartedly, and in 1713 most of the combatants were ready to listen to terms of peace. By the Treaty of Utrecht, Great Britain's tangible gains were Gibraltar and Minorca: Nova Scotia (the Acadie of Longfellow's Evangeline): Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay territory, with certain trade privileges in the Spanish Indies. the most valuable result of the war was the establishment of her position as an important Colonial power and the one great sea-power of Europe. Indirectly the terms of the treaty, being chiefly of commercial advantage, gave an impetus to the growth of the merchant class, to which the Whigs and the Dissenters mostly belonged; thus paving the way for the future long supremacy of Whig principles under the new line of sovereigns.

It was in the summer of 1714 that the Queen's ill-health was still further shaken by a stormy Council

meeting at which the question of the succession to the throne was debated. The heir-apparent, in a legal and parliamentary sense, was George, the Elector of the little German state of Hanover. His claim to the throne of Great Britain was established by the Act of Succession in 1689, which declared that no Roman Catholic might occupy the throne, and that, being Protestant, the succession should pass first to the heirs of Queen Mary, wife of William III; next to Anne of Denmark; then to her heirs; then to heirs of William III, should he be widowed and marry again;

and, failing these, to the Electress Sophia of Hanover, daughter of Princess Elizabeth, sister of Charles I, and her heirs. Thus her son George, who since the death of the Elector Ernest Augustus, his father, in 1698, had been ruling Hanover, a man of middle age, stern yet shy, and knowing no English, became King of Great Britain.

In view of his coming rule there had been for some years a



George I

Hanoverian representative at the English court, and when the meeting of the Privy Council took place, on the Queen's death, he conveyed his royal master's will to the assembly concerning the Lords Justices who were to act as a Council of Regency until the King's arrival. There were one or two surprising omissions from this list of names. Naturally all Tories were excluded, as possible if not actual, Stuart sympathizers; but neither were there the great Whig names which

had been expected. The Duke of Marlborough was not named, nor any other Whig statesman of the first rank. Thus was shown the new monarch's resolve to take an active and prominent part himself in the work of government.

Immediately after the Council's meeting, George was proclaimed in London, Edinburgh and Dublin; and everywhere the proclamation was received with respect. Abroad, Louis XIV voluntarily acknowledged the succession of the Elector, his antagonist for years, opposed always to the ambition and aggressiveness of France, and, on account of his military skill, a leader amongst the German princes. But there was nothing in either his person or his character to awaken very lively feelings of devotion and loyalty in his British subjects, and this indifference he fully reciprocated. Henceforth, until the reign of Victoria, the attitude of the nation toward the monarchy was rather that of a business-like understanding than that of a warm and personal loyalty. In spite of the many troubles, of the pressure of the war, of the intrigues and the dissensions amongst the various parties in the State during the reign of Anne, there had been throughout a very real admiration and regard felt for the person of the sovereign. Her great attachment to the Church made strong appeal to many; and her ready generosity in foregoing the mediæval prerogatives of "first-fruits" and "tithes," that the revenues might be used to increase the stipends of the poorer clergy, is still commemorated in the familiar phrase, "Queen Anne's Bounty."

The expression "Good Queen Anne" is one familiar to all. There were several reasons for the designation.

First her devotion to the Church of England, which her personal piety had honoured, and her generosity had enriched. Next her strictness in her household and in her Court, which prevented gaiety becoming licence and frivolity from banishing dignity. Also her Majesty was interested in, and gave support to, the various societies which had been formed in the previous reign for "the Reformation of Manners," and for the "Promoting of Christian Knowledge." In this way she threw her influence upon the side of gentleness and humane living, as against violence and ignorance.

It was on 1st August 1714 that she died, and on the 31st of the month her successor set out on his journey to his new dominions. The contrast between the loneliness of the Queen he was succeeding and his own condition was emphatic. We read that, though he left his wife a semi-prisoner in a fortress in his German territory, he brought with him his married son, George Augustus, who had a high reputation as a soldier, and had won honour at Oudenarde; his daughter, Sophia Dorothea, and the cultivated and charming Princess Caroline, his son's wife, with their three young daughters. Their son Frederick was left in Hanover, that he might have a German education; and this small detail serves to show that then, as always, George I felt that Hanover and his German associations were more important to him than England and English matters.

In attendance upon the royal party were numerous ladies and gentlemen who, in their turn, had attendants and servants, so that more than one hundred persons accompanied the new monarch to our island. He arrived on 18th September, and this gives us an idea of

the leisurely travelling of those times. The next day his Majesty held his first reception in the royal palace at Greenwich. He elected for positions of trust Whig nobles and gentlemen, making the Marquis of Townshend Secretary of State, and his young brotherin-law, Robert Walpole, afterwards to become so famous, Paymaster of the Forces.

A month later the coronation took place, but not with universal greetings of loyalty. In some parts there was rioting to express admiration for Sacheverell and the Tory leaders, and in others some disturbances by "Jacobite" sympathizers. There was nothing very cheering or inspiring about the beginning of the new dynasty. Those who had brought it about were satisfied only with the security it promised against the return of the Stuart exiles.

If we could see the England of 1714 as King George I saw it, in the autumn of that year, we should observe many things that would seem strange enough. Far more changes have taken place in English life, customs and surroundings during the last two centuries than took place in all the years between the Norman Conquest and the eighteenth century. We may notice a few points.

First, as to communication. Postage was charged by distance: under eighty miles, threepence; above that distance, fourpence, if in England—sixpence to Edinburgh or Dublin. Country posts left London three times a week, and were received on the alternate three days. The mails were supposed to cover one hundred and twenty miles in twenty-four hours. This was managed by having relays of horses in readiness at certain inns along the route. The foreign mails were sent by "packet boats," which also carried

passengers; and the passage was short or long according as the wind was favourable or not, since boats went under sail, not by steam.

Travelling at home was accomplished, by the rich in their own coaches with a regular system of post

horses; by the ordinary citizen in stage coaches which made the journey from London to Oxford in twelve hours; and by poorer people in waggons or on foot. The roads were rough, and in winter dangerous on account of ruts and quagmires; and there were perils from highwaymen to be faced. In London there were a few public vehicles, then, as now, called hackney coaches, and a few Sedan chairs for hire. As yet the pavement was not distinguished from the roadway, except by an occasional barrier of posts; and the Thames was still the most



Queen Anne Chair

popular highway. Upon the river were many barges belonging to the owners of the stately mansions along its banks; and there were also boats for public hire, with frequent ferries which served instead of bridges.

Houses were beginning to be built with a greater number of windows, which in some cases were made so as to open, whilst the heavy tapestry wall-hangings were being replaced by panelling or paper. A great fondness was shown for ornaments in the rooms, and thus chinaware and decorative glass became fashionable. But the rooms would have seemed bare to modern eyes, in spite of handsome chimneypieces, elaborate fireplaces and firebacks, and beautifully decorated ceilings, for the furniture was scanty; a few high-backed chairs, a long

table, a square settee, were considered sufficient, and only in the parlours of fashionable houses might be seen one



Delft Posset Pot

or two small Dutch tables. One new feature of the time was the cornercupboard; it had glass doors, and in it were displayed the chinaware and glass ornaments of which every housewife was proud. The most elaborate piece of furniture was the bedstead. Beautifully carved, with posts and canopy to carry handsome velvet and brocade hangings, it was worthy of a place in the principal room, and

frequently occupied it.

Apparently burglaries were known then, as now; but it is curious to read that householders were warned to have shutters within, or without, the full length of the window, as otherwise burglars found it easy to reach over the top, remove the glass and steal the curtains.

Another feature of the Queen Anne house was that for the first time the staircases were constructed broad enough for two persons to walk abreast, while the steps were wide and the depth between them uniform.

In dress, we find that women's attire was gay; and many Indian and Oriental materials were used. Long-waisted, stiff bodices, laced in front, with full and frilled skirts, were worn, and an indispensable article was an apron. The hair was dressed elaborately, with many little tight curls, real or artificial, and for outdoors a hood, which formed part of the mantua or cloak, was worn.

Men's dress was also stiff, and much embroidered.

Not only were the waistcoats "fancy," but the cuffs and the large pocket flaps of the coat were also heavily ornamented. White lace at the throat and wrists slowly gave place to a tight black cravat and small cuffs; a cocked hat was worn or carried, and all gentlemen bore a sword and flourished a tall cane.

The influence of the Court upon dress was in the direction of sober colours and less elaborate trimming, both for men and women, as we shall see in the

gradually changing fashions.

A few years before Queen Anne died, St Paul's Cathedral was finished, and, very fitly, her statue stands before the great West Entrance. Many churches were built, but there was still only one bridge over the Thames. In the city the merchants' houses were distinguished by signs, as very few of the population could read; some are still familiar to us, as The Royal Oak, The Golden Fleece, The Saracen's Head; though no

trader, except the tavernkeeper, thinks it absolutely necessary to have a sign to-day.

A great feature of the town life of the period was the habit of fre-



Coffee-house on the Thames

quenting coffee-houses, which combined some of the conveniences of the modern club and the modern hotel. There met the politician—and nearly every man of leisure was an ardent politician—and the traveller, the writer and the idler; and after discussing the news of the day they settled down to card games.

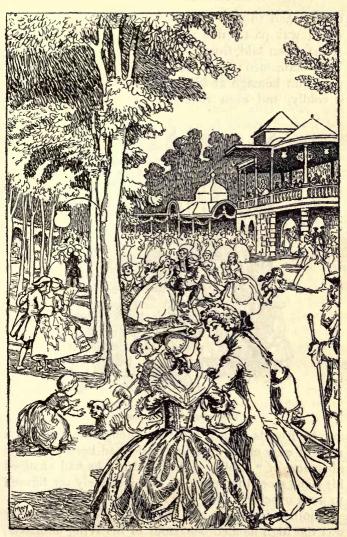
In the first year of the Queen's reign a great innovation took place—viz. the publishing of a daily newspaper.

A small four-paged journal, with alternate sides printed and blank, gave the news of foreign affairs, the Court, aristocratic society and important events. A few years later some weekly papers began to appear which consisted chiefly of essays, or descriptive and reflective remarks upon men and things. These papers were dear, as the Government placed a heavy tax upon printed matter; partly in order to restrain discussion and comments upon political events, and partly to get revenue.

Fashionable people dined at three in the afternoon, and supped between eight and nine; forks were becoming usual, and table napkins had just been introduced. Driving in the Park was a favourite amusement with the rich, and dancing in public gardens, of which those at Vauxhall were the most noted, served instead of private balls and parties. There were only two theatres open in London, as the Queen never visited performances, and thus they were not patronized by the great; but the Royal Italian Operas, as given at the Haymarket, as well as concerts in public halls, were beginning to be much attended.

The new King and his Court had no desire to set or to follow English fashions; and quiet as the late Queen had made all her social functions, the German Royalties were content with even less excitement. The hours and doings of Hanover, its homely style and simple ways were copied at St James's Palace; and, if the monarch found it hard to accommodate himself to English ways, undoubtedly those of his subjects who had anything to do with him found German fashions no more attractive.

In rather less than one year after his accession, King



Vauxhall Gardens in the Time of George I

George had to face an insurrection in his dominions which was partly due to his own conduct of affairs. As has been said, from the first he showed no favour to Tory statesmen; and when the Scottish Earl of Mar paid him homage at his reception, the King received it coldly, and even rudely. This incensed the peer



The Palace Gate, St James's

and his friends against him; and though the Earl was a man of easy mind in politics, and had been given the nickname of "Bobbing John" because he had changed his views more than once, he now resolutely set himself to work mischief to the new monarch.

Another influence that made the King unpopular was the high-handed behaviour of his Whig ministers,

who impeached the Tory leaders, Bolingbroke, Oxford and Ormonde, for treason, on account of their secret understanding with France whilst framing the Treaty of Utrecht. All Tory supporters became somewhat more Jacobite and less Hanoverian in sympathy because of this.

Lastly, the death of the French king, who had secretly wished well to the banished Stuarts, decided the Earl of Mar to strike at once. He equipped bands of Highlanders, induced other lairds to do the same, and then, under the sinister pretence of a hunting party at Braemar, set on foot the rebellion. Following the ancient and barbaric custom, which is as old as Hebrew history, he sent throughout the Highlands the threatening symbol of war: a cross of wood, charred at one end and blood-stained at the other; and chieftains and followers assembled round his banner. A few north-country English gentlemen threw in their lot with the Scottish rebels, and a march south began. More than one contest took place between the Jacobite army and the Government troops, but none was conclusive; and the battle of Sheriffmuir, where a panic seems to have seized both sides, was derided in the scoffing ballad:

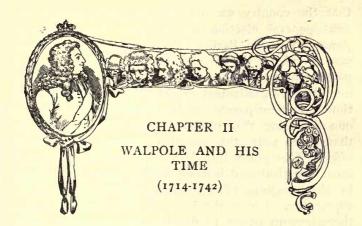
"There's some say that we won, and some say that they won; And some say that none won at a', man!"

Soon the Pretender, James Edward, defiantly proclaimed as "King James," landed in Scotland and, had he been more resolute, or of an adventurous disposition, his supporters might even have carried a revolution in his favour. But he was far from upholding the Stuart ideal of high-hearted daring, and alarmed at the odds

he discreetly sailed back to France. Alas! for his cause; having been seen and estimated, his name no longer served as a rallying cry, and the rising died away: the "stupidest of insurrections," it has been called. But in it, as in others as ill-fated, there perished some noble lives, and some gallant hearts were broken. The villagers of Cumberland still tell the tale of the Countess of Derwentwater climbing the cliff and riding hard to London to plead for her husband's life. But the Earl was beheaded, with other nobles, and men of inferior birth were hanged or transported. The Countess of Nithsdale by a clever device rescued her husband. She had permission to visit him in prison to say farewell, and persuaded him to disguise himself in her clothes. She took his place in the dungeon, and he left the prison leaning on the arm of her old nurse, who had accompanied her. But he was one of the few fortunate ones; most paid heavily for their ill-judged attempt at rebellion.



Dancing Dolls



HE failure of the revolt in Scotland, whilst it seated the King more securely on his throne, did not make his Whig Government less obnoxious to the Tories. But for the present the worst difficulties seemed to be removed. for France had given up her policy of supporting the Stuart Exiles. King Louis XIV had died, and his successor was a delicate lad for whom the Duke of Orleans acted as Regent. Now Philip V of Spain was quite likely to claim the French throne if the young King died, so France was desirous to have England as her ally in order to repel him. Thus a bargain was struck: France was to recognize the Hanoverian dynasty, England was to support France against Spain if necessary. These two powers were joined by Holland, who was always in dread of Spain, and thus the British Whig Government had achieved a Triple Alliance against Spain and the Pretender.

In spite of this successful policy, however, they felt

that the country was not so well satisfied that the next general election would return them again to power. Yet the Parliament had lasted nearly three years, and, by the Triennial Act, not only must a parliament be summoned at least once in three years but also no parliament might last longer than that time. So they passed an Act changing this statute to one decreeing that no parliament should sit longer than seven years, thus lengthening their own term of office. This proceeding is always looked upon as of great constitutional interest, and it forms a landmark in the progress of Parliament toward its present supremacy. Unless the King should refuse his assent there was no power to prevent the innovation being established, and this his Majesty did not feel able to do.

One of the objections to a Hanoverian monarch felt by many Stuart sympathizers had been that he would certainly esteem Hanover first and Great Britain second; and this seemed likely to be justified. For besides surrounding himself with German advisers, and bestowing honours upon them, the King insisted upon spending much of his time in his Electorate. The Act of Settlement, which so carefully guarded the movements of a foreign sovereign when William of Orange became King, contained a clause declaring that the King might not leave his realm without the consent of Parliament. Neither Whigs nor Tories, however, wished to interpose any obstacle at this time, and the Government asked only that, as usual, the Prince of Wales should be made Regent during the King's absence. Now it was one of the unfortunate circumstances of George I's domestic life that he was always

WALPOLE AND HIS TIME

on unfriendly terms with his eldest son. This the Prince provoked and perpetuated by invariably thwarting his father's wishes, and by openly favouring causes and persons frowned upon by the King. The social receptions of the Prince and Princess of Wales at Leicester House—then a country residence, in what is now that crowded centre, Leicester Square—were rivals of those of his Majesty at St James's Palace. Owing to the gracious manners of the Princess and the dullness of the King's gatherings, where no Queen presided, these functions were attended, not only by discontented political partisans, but by many fashionable ladies of society.

The King's dislike of his eldest son, and his resentment at the antagonism always shown by the Prince, led him to decline to permit his son to assume the title of Regent. Parliament could insist that he should assume the duties and responsibilities, but his father had his way in declaring him to be, in the old feudal terms, "guardian and lieutenant of the realm." The British public was shocked and annoyed at this display of ill-feeling, and in this atmosphere of criticism and unpopularity the King set out in the autumn of 1716 for Hanover. There he made a long stay, and gave his mind principally to the affairs of his Electorate, dealing quite summarily with the State matters laid before him by his British ministers.

At this moment, rather unfortunately, Russia, for the first time, took an active part in European affairs under her resolute and progressive monarch, Peter the Great. The step which greatly concerned the Elector George was the Russian invasion of Mecklenburg; and he applied to his ministers in England for military help to

drive out the invaders. Naturally enough, Great Britain and her Government had but little interest in the affairs of a small German state, and the King's request was coldly received. This enraged him, and when, shortly afterwards, he found that Sweden was countenancing and entertaining James Edward, the Pretender, and even planning an invasion of Scotland,



Sir Robert Walpole

he desired the British Government to declare war against Sweden. Confident that this threatened danger was not real, the ministers declined to make war, and King George dismissed them.

Meanwhile the "guardian and lieutenant of the realm" was showing as marked a contrast as possible to his royal father's management. His life at Hampton Court Palace was marked by a series of splendid

functions, which easily reconciled the great world to the sovereign's absence. Amongst the resignations that followed King George's dismissal of his chief ministry was that of Walpole, Paymaster of the Forces and, practically, Chancellor of the Exchequer. A dispute between him and his Sovereign as to the payment of some Hanoverian troops, who were supposed to be engaged to assist in stamping out the Scottish rebellion in 1715, was another matter which made it difficult for them to work together.

Walpole was a very able man, and had devised a plan whereby to raise money for state purposes by a readjustment of the National Debt and its interest. But he was greatly opposed to most of the doings of the

WALPOLE AND HIS TIME

new chief minister, Earl Stanhope, including his framing of a new treaty with European powers. To counteract the mischievous design of Russia and Sweden, Stanhope admitted Austria into the league of Britain, France and Holland, thus constituting a Quadruple Alliance. Walpole, disapproving, headed a party of similarly disposed Whigs, and the Government was thus hampered by a Tory Opposition and a discontented faction of their own.

Then occurred the great crisis which forms a landmark in our economic and financial history, and in which Walpole's skill and resolution shone so conspicuously that they brought him to the front rank, and gave him the high position at the head of his Majesty's Government which he held for eighteen years.

In all periods of our history the question of Revenue, the Exchequer, the raising of money to pay the cost of government, has been one of the most important. So it was now. Walpole was not the only statesman with a plan for improving British finance; indeed his seemed tame compared with the brilliant promise of what may be called the Tory plan. A successful and prosperous trading company, which was developing the rich products of Spanish South America, approached the Government and proposed to offer their stock (or shares in the company) in exchange for Government stock (or loans upon which interest was paid). A quarter of a century before, something almost as venturesome had been devised and carried through in the founding of the Bank of England by means of substantial loans upon which interest was paid. This was a Whig idea, and had been so judiciously framed and worked out that it had stood

the test of time. What more natural than that Tory statesmen should desire to be equally useful and original? Hence we find that the Tories strongly supported the South Sea Scheme—i.e. the proposal to exchange Government stock for the company's.

With no intention to defraud, but with a much too sanguine idea of the possibilities of wealth to be obtained by foreign trade, influential people published abroad the advantages of this way of becoming rich. It is to be remembered that, familiar as we are now with the idea of making more money by "investing" some that we already possess, in those days it was comparatively new to the bulk of the people. So there arose the strange spectacle of a whole population losing its head! Nor were there wanting rogues and adventurers to take advantage of the general madness. So bent was everyone who possessed a little money upon increasing it in this magical way of "buying shares," that when all the "Stock" of the company had been sold, and still thousands wanted to buy, an audacious cheat, setting up a stall in the street, would proclaim shares in a company for changing lead to silver, or for making salt-water fresh, or to import asses from Spain, or to work a concern the nature of which would afterwards be published, and would thus obtain money from dozens of credulous persons.

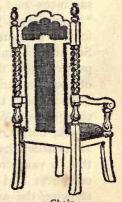
Very soon it became known that the South Sea Company could not possibly earn enough money by its trading to pay all the interest it had promised; sooner still, that the sham companies and the cheats had no intention of paying back anything. Then in just as wild a rush everyone hastened to sell his shares; and it seemed that once again businesslike England

WALPOLE AND HIS TIME

was to know the disgrace of a "Stop of the Exchequer," which amounted to a declaration of national bankruptcy, as in the bad old days of Charles II. Of course the

as in the bad old days of Charles II. ministers who had permitted, as well as the statesmen who had advised, support of the South Sea Scheme were the objects of strong public indignation. With cruel wit it was called the South Sea Bubble: once pricked, nothing remained of substance; and in the bursting people lost their fortunes and their reputations, and broke their hearts.

All eyes turned to the cool, masterful man whose plan had been ignored for this disastrous scheme; and thus the King was compelled to reinstate the Marquis of Townshend as Secretary



Chair, George I and 11

We read of stormy times in Parliament sometimes nowadays, but nothing that we know can compare with the painful scenes when the new Parliament assembled, in December 1720, with the enormous task before it of restoring public credit. Many members were bent on severe and immediate punishment of the unfortunate advisers, whether they had, or had not, enriched themselves in the great scheme. Walpole, however, who remembered that, but for the split in his own party, his own proposals and not the Tory ones would have been considered, disdained wasting time in debating faults and penalties, and counselled that they should "cheerily seek how to redress their harms."

of State, and Walpole as Paymaster of the Forces.

For nearly a year this was the main business of Parliament. Walpole, cold, resolute, far-seeing, was

unmoved by the popular clamour for punishment of ministers, and held an even balance in all evidence for and against their degree of guilt. Enormous sacrifices had to be made; thousands of pounds in "Stock" were "written off"—i.e. declared non-existent; few of the annuities so readily exchanged for South Sea shares could now be paid; and there was a great public outcry that at least the fortunes of the directors of the company should be seized in part payment. Rumour said then, and history has since accepted the charge, that Walpole himself had bought South Sea Stock, but had sold it again, to advantage, when he saw, earlier than others, that the crash must come. So that in vain crowds of deluded sufferers thronged the entrances and corridors of the House of Commons, showing the worthless warrants and crying: "Justice! Justice for the annuitants who trusted in parliamentary security!" A few expressions of sympathy, a few kindly but unsubstantial promises, and then the Riot Act was read and the assembled multitude dispersed by force.

In the pinch of the process the great body of the public could hardly realize the solid wisdom and good judgment of Walpole's proceedings, and the general indignation found expression in regarding him, not as the saviour of the state, or the builder of public credit, but as the "Screen" of the ill-judged ministers. Little he cared for caricature or abuse; he knew that his course was prudent and that, given peace, a country soon recreates its vanished wealth. In his discretion he made his own position secure by watching carefully the prominent members of his party. Anyone who seemed either over-ambitious or discontented he con-

trived to turn out of office; amongst the members of the House of Commons he guarded against op-

position by providing energetic men with posts and covetous ones with money. No doubt it was the success of this policy which made him afterwards declare publicly that "every man has his price," and that anyone would sell his principles for a sufficiently high one. To avoid friction with his royal master, Walpole condescended to seek the favour of the German ladies of the Court, who, in the absence of a queen, had considerable influence over the King,



Link Boy

and could sway not only his tastes in dress and amusements but also his political sympathies.

Thus, competently, if unscrupulously, Walpole established himself as Dictator, so that "England under Walpole" is a far truer description than "England under George I or George II." Indeed the King died and his son succeeded without interruption, glad or sad, to the conduct of affairs or the passage of events. More than once, from motives of public policy, the old King pretended to be reconciled, outwardly, with his son and heir, but he never wavered in his unnatural and unfatherly dislike of him. After his death it was found that he had by his will left his beloved Hanover to his cousin, the Duke of Brunswick. It was of no effect, since the succession to the Electorate was hereditary, unless an heir failed; but had it been enforced there would have been removed one cause of trouble and discontent with George II-viz. his frequent absences from England.

During the six years which elapsed between Walpole's taking office and the death of King George I, the affairs of government were divided between Lord Townshend, Walpole and Lord Carteret. Lord Townshend was, of course, in the Upper House, and was Secretary for Foreign Affairs. Carteret was Secretary for the Southern Department; these, with a Secretary for Scotland, being the offices which have since developed into our seven secretariats. Thus Walpole was the acknowledged leader in the Commons and, as Townshend's charge of foreign affairs was a heavy one, Walpole was practically supreme over all home policy. His great gift for the management of money enabled him to plan his control of all legislation so that his convictions should bear fruit. Thus he realized that peace was the first essential for growth and stability of trade; and that in trade were the greatest possibilities of becoming rich. Next, he understood, what his contemporaries were slow to see, that heavy duties, on either imported or exported goods were a hindrance to, and a drag upon, increased trade

Russia's awakening and Sweden's unfriendliness had interfered with the Baltic trade in timber, so much needed for shipbuilding; and Walpole turned his attention to the encouragement of a Scottish and an American timber trade, thus ensuring plentiful supplies. His occasional need of money, however, led him to attempt an unwise imposition; as, for instance a heavy tax of twenty-five per cent. on the estates of Roman Catholics and those who had refused to take the Oaths of Supremacy and Allegiance to the new dynasty, known as Nonjurors. In this way the minister thought to crush the rising hopes of the Stuard

sympathizers; for through the unpopularity of the King and the general discontent with the Government there was no strong feeling of loyalty to the present occupant of the throne. Also about this time James Edward the Pretender had a little son born to him, and it was known that many men of position were in communication with him. Amongst the more ardent Jacobite supporters was the learned Dr Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester and Dean of Westminster, who openly preached political sermons against the Hanoverian King and his Government.

When the new Parliament met, in the autumn of 1722, its first business was to bring in Bills of Pains

and Penalties whereby to banish Bishop Atterbury and certain Jacobite peers from the kingdom. This was done, and henceforth Walpole sought to carry out his favourite policy of ignoring disloyalty and, by some indirect means, rendering mischievous intentions harmless. His motto, Quieta non movere ("Let sleeping dogs lie"), was a guiding principle to himself, though few other men of his day were Eighteenth Century tolerant or cautious enough to be able to practise it.

So long as political relations with the Continental sovereigns were peaceful, Walpole had no ambition to control the plans and intrigues which belonged to the King's foreign policy. And, as keeper of the pursestrings, Walpole's position was very strong, since no campaign could be undertaken without reference to him. His interviews with his sovereign were uncomfortable for both. His Majesty knew no English, Walpole knew no German; their conferences went on

in unscholarly Latin. Alone of all his ministers, Lord Carteret could converse with the King in German. This gave him an advantage over the Foreign Secretary, Townshend, and soon there was rivalry between them. Carteret advised the King to attack the Russian fleet in the Baltic and, in the interests of Hanover, he desired to do so. But Townshend pointed out that this would involve Great Britain, and the King refrained. He turned his mind, however, to some less aggressive means of checking Russia, and so listened to the suggestions of his daughter, Sophia Dorothea, Queen of Prussia.

Her Majesty's proposals were to marry her eldest daughter to Prince Frederick, the King's grandson, eldest son of George, Prince of Wales; and her eldest son, Frederick (afterwards to become Frederick the Great), to one of the daughters of the Prince of Wales. These were formally stated in a treaty, and the effect was evidently to strengthen the German states against Russia's designs. The Czar Peter retaliated by making advances to France to assist her in restoring the Jacobite Pretender.

All these high matters of state passed far over the heads and away from the everyday life of most of King George's British subjects. For them there were troubles nearer home and more easily understood. Thinking the better to control Ireland, the British Parliament passed a Bill making all laws passed in it to apply to Ireland also. Meanwhile the Irish Parliament had to ask the sanction of the Houses at Westminster for all its enactments. Naturally this aroused great indignation across the narrow sea, and when, further, an act was passed forbidding the wearing of prints—i.e.

calicoes—in England, in order to bolster up the English silk and woollen trades, Ireland found her chief industry threatened with ruin. This had not been intended, as the law was aimed at the importation of East India goods, which had become most popular ever since they were introduced by Queen Mary. Another churchman and Dean, Dr Jonathan Swift, as strong a Tory as Atterbury, flung himself into the political strife and took up the cudgels for the Irish industry, writing a bitter and denunciatory pamphlet suggesting that the Irish should "utterly reject and renounce everything wearable that comes from England."

One of the practical examples of injustice toward Ireland was the refusal to permit the Irish Government

to mint its own coins, whilst neglecting to supply it from the Royal Mint. Hoping to placate the Irish people, Walpole authorized a private individual, a wealthy mine-owner, named Wood, to coin halfpence and farthings for Ireland on payment of a certain tax to the Royal Mint. Accordingly we find



Stool, George I and II

a great industry of minting established in that part of London later to be known as Seven Dials, and to it came the ore from Wood's mines to be made into coins for Ireland. The Government had intended no harm, but had hoped to please a powerful duchess who patronized the ironfounder, and trusted to gain a little over the transaction. But, led by Swift again, such a storm gathered and broke that, when £17,000 worth of copper coin had been shipped to Ireland, it was evident that it would be impossible to force it upon the country. Charges were brought that the halfpence were not

uniform; that they were inferior to English halfpence, sixty instead of forty-three being coined from one pound of copper. Much was made of this lightness in the first of the famous *Drapier's Letters*, in which Swift held up to ridicule the paltry coins, a cartload of which would hardly pay a moderate debt; the "hardware man," who must be making an immense profit; and the extraordinary conditions which permitted a man to be "a freeman in England and, after six hours in crossing the Channel, a slave!"

At first Walpole affected to take no notice of the storm, but presently he issued a justification of the patent granted, and of Wood's honesty. The famous scholar, Sir Isaac Newton, was Master of the Mint, and he signed the document declaring the coins good. But in vain. Dublin streets rang with angry and excited cries; verses and skits were composed and shouted with untiring vigour:

"The halfpence are coming—the nation's undoing;
There's an end of your ploughing and baking and brewing:
In short you must all go to rack and to ruin."

Though nearly everyone knew that Swift was really the author of the inflammatory *Drapier's Letters*, the Government's offer of a reward of £300 brought no informer; and when the printer was prosecuted the jury threw out the Bill. Then Walpole, caring little either way, but determined to prevent disturbance becoming established, had the patent cancelled; and thus Ireland had her will.

Meanwhile a cause of jealousy had arisen with Scotland. The Malt Tax, imposed the year before

Queen Anne died, had never been accepted by Scotland, and year by year its payment was evaded. The English county gentlemen, who most readily had Walpole's ear, since they considered him one of themselves, represented the unfairness of their bearing all the tax whilst the Scottish gentry went free. Walpole hoped, if not to please, at least to manage both sides, by proposing a duty half as high—threepence instead of sixpence—in Scotland. Like many compromises, this pleased nobody, but here Walpole overrode all resistance. A too sympathetic Secretary for Scotland was dismissed, and his work shared by the two English Secretaries of State. Unperturbed and content, Walpole wrote in the autumn of 1725: "We have once more got Ireland and Scotland quiet."

Abroad there had been threatening dangers, which were averted by expensive treaties and, in the case of Sweden, by a heavy bribe; and some overaweing of Russia in the Baltic by the sending of a British fleet, Spain was insistently planning for the restitution of Gibraltar and Minorca, and another fleet was despatched to patrol the Mediterranean; so that in the spring of 1726 there were many causes for uneasiness. Discontented politicians and discontented merchants were at one in their impatience with his Majesty's ministers, and clamoured for what has since been called "a spirited foreign policy." A counterblast to the Treaty of Hanover, signed the previous year by Great Britain, France and Russia, and later by Sweden, was the secret Treaty of Vienna between Austria and Spain, in which the former state promised to assist Spain to recover her lost territories, by force if necessary. Meanwhile the Duke of Wharton, an adventurer, though belonging

to a noble house, was being fêted at the Spanish Court, where he had announced himself as ambassador from his royal master, King James. Fortunately, the help promised to Spain by the Emperor was sentimental rather than substantial, so that nothing came of that threatening alliance; whilst the young King Louis of France had, as principal minister, the peaceful Cardinal Fleury, who was of the same mind as Walpole himself upon the subject of wars between civilized nations.

In the summer of 1727 King George set out, according to his usual custom, for Hanover, with the greater impatience perhaps as the year before it had been safer for him not to go. On the way, driving in his heavy coach he was met by a messenger bearing a letter, and after reading it he sank down in an attack of apoplexy. His attendants hastened his approach to Osnabruck, the home of his brother, but on reaching there the King was found to be dead. Presently the news reached London, to be received with but little regret. During the thirteen years of his reign he had won no favour and conciliated no one. He had not cared to master even enough English to greet his ministers or to reply to the salutes of his courtiers; he had withdrawn his presence from the committees of his Council, because he could understand no word that was said; he had set up, as far as possible, an English Court on the model of the homely one of Hanover, thus alienating the great; and his quarrels with his son, together with his sullen manners, disgusted the people at large. For several years he had been constantly hooted when driving in the streets of London.

unwelcome in his capital, though he, too, was never greatly popular. In matters of government this sovereign was accustomed to consider and follow the advice of his wife, Oueen Caroline; and she, with great gifts of intuition and judgment, was often able to see the wise and desirable course. But she had to be most diplomatic and patient in presenting it to the King, so that, as he became familiar with an idea, it should appear to have been his own. An early instance of this was when, on the King's accession, he wished to have as Prime Minister a less independent and masterful man than Walpole, and requested Sir Spencer Compton, one of the Leicester House clique, to assume the post of Lord President of the Privy Council, and to summon its members to proclaim his accession. The Court favourite was unequal to the task, and had to get the blunt, brusque Walpole to do it for him. The Queen thus had little difficulty in persuading the King that he desired a strong man for his minister, and hence that Walpole had better. remain. This influence on his behalf was handsomely acknowledged by Walpole when, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, the question as to the jointure of the new Queen was to be discussed, for he undertook to settle upon her Majesty twice as much as had been proposed.

Thus began a period of twelve years during which Walpole was supreme; not without a struggle, and not without dissensions, though his position became more secure as the years went on. We have seen already that Townshend and Walpole did not always see eye to eye; after the accession of George II their relations became more uncomfortable. Queen Caroline's consideration for Walpole was one cause of this,

Walpole's growing determination to manage even matters of foreign policy was another. As he himself put it, with an affectation of being one of the partners in a business: "As long as the firm was Townshend & Walpole all was well, but when it became Walpole & Townshend things were different." And by 1730 the firm had become Walpole & Townshend so far that, while the latter counselled war with Austria, Walpole insisted on a peaceful settlement, and, when the majority of the Cabinet voted with him, Townshend resigned.

Amongst the Jacobites who were banished for being concerned in the rising of 1715 was Viscount Bolingbroke, who, however, had returned, and was actively working for the Tories. In the House of Commons a certain William Pulteney, an eloquent speaker, was the leader of the dissatisfied parties, himself a Whig, but opposed to Walpole. These two men organized an opposition to the great minister, and in their journal, The Craftsman, they violently attacked all that he did.

We saw how, in the matter of the coinage of halfpence for Ireland, Walpole gave way when he found
that a strong opposition, leading to forcible resistance,
was shown. A similar instance occurred in 1733. Then,
as now, part of the Revenue was provided by taxes on
imported goods, and tobacco was a principal item.
But so much was lost to the Treasury through successful smuggling that he devised a new plan. Tobacco
was to be unshipped without tax and stored in warehouses; the tax was to be paid by traders buying it
out to sell to customers, and they must hold a licence to
sell it at all. There were already some duties on things
made at home, as whisky, beer, etc., which were taxed
in the same way—viz, when bought by the trader to sell

again; and, to distinguish this money from the tax on imported goods, this was called Excise and the latter Duties. So Walpole proposed to remove tobacco from Duties to Excise; and he explained quite clearly the convenience and advantages, and cleverly dwelt upon the gain to the Revenue, which would probably enable him to remit some other tax—the land tax, for instance.

This pleased the country gentlemen in Parliament, and no doubt the measure would have passed but for Walpole's two rivals, Bolingbroke and Pulteney. These so misrepresented the matter, saying that everybody would find an exciseman searching his house for tobacco, that Walpole's cold, businesslike reason had no weight at all. Men thought their tobacco was being filched from them, or that they would find it dearer: and none would hear with patience any reason for the change. Then Walpole withdrew the Bill; and his opponent, Pulteney, enjoyed a barren triumph: "I will never be the minister to enforce taxes at the price of blood," said Walpole. This, however, could not always be avoided, and, failing to circumvent smuggling by his intended new method, he had the laws against it made more severe.

Scotland had always resisted English control of money matters, and had not been very energetic in trying to prevent the Revenue being defrauded by smuggling. So when two smugglers were condemned to death at Edinburgh a serious riot occurred, in which the prisoners escaped. The captain of the city guard ordered his men to fire on the crowd, and some were killed. To appease the popular anger, Captain Porteous was arrested and tried for murder. He was sentenced to death; but the Government thought the sentence too

severe, and ordered a reprieve. The Edinburgh populace, in their resentment, burst into the prison,



Ladies in Time of George II

brought Porteous out, scrupulously purchased rope, and hanged him. Lovers of Scott will remember, in the "Heart of Midlothian," a description of Edinburgh life in the early eighteenth century and the Porteous Riots.

This defiance of authority by the people of Edinburgh, and the taking of the law into their own hands,

aroused the Queen to great indignation. During King George's absence in Hanover her Majesty was acting as Regent, and she proposed the severest punishment for the city; even the taking away of its charter. Walpole at length induced her to be satisfied with a heavy fine of £2000; and though this was light compared with what she proposed, it was the cause of much angry feeling in England as well as in Edinburgh.

Troubles like this always tend to make a government unpopular, and there grew up a very general feeling that neither royal house nor Whig Government cared anything for the people, English or Scottish. This gave the Jacobite sympathizers fresh opportunities for arousing enthusiasm for a banished house; and the King's frequent and long absences in Hanover prevented the growth of any feeling of personal loyalty to his person. We see now that Walpole's policy with regard to heavy duties on spirits, which continued that begun in Queen Anne's reign, was the foundation of the present restrictions on the sale of intoxicating drinks. For in the early years of the eighteenth century the

habit of drinking spirits spread very largely, with, of course, evil effects on health and morals. To check the evil, as well as to obtain revenue, the duties were continually made heavier; so that a new kind of spirit had been distilled, called "Geneva Compound Waters," which could be produced cheaply. Soon the cumbrous name was shortened to "Gin," and its sale was enormous. The Government's proposed tax of twenty shillings a gallon had to be supported by armed patrols in the streets, and the payment was evaded in every possible way.

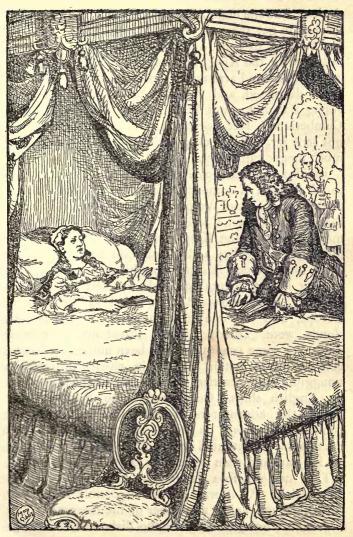
It is anticipating the events of a few years later to tell here how, the great minister having resigned, his successor (and former rival), Carteret, entirely reversed the law as to duty on spirits, and reduced the tax from twenty shillings to sixpence. As repression had done nothing to stop drunkenness, and had produced but little revenue, it was determined to remove obstacles to procuring spirits, in the hope that then there would be less zest for them.

A feature of this reign, as of the previous one, was the unfriendly relations of the King and the Prince of Wales. We saw how, when George I came over at first from Hanover, he had not permitted his son, the Prince of Wales, to bring his young son with the rest of the family. When, however, his education was complete he had joined his parents in England, living with them at St James's Palace and Hampton Court. A residence at Kew was given to him, but his father, now George II, refused to permit him control of his income of £100,000 allowed by Parliament. Probably on this account the royal father and son were not on speaking terms. During the uncomfortable receptions which took place occasionally, after dinner, the King managed to avoid even

glancing at the Prince of Wales, and it is said that for years he never spoke to him. Queen Caroline, too, was cold and reserved toward him, and the unfortunate Frederick set himself to annoy his parents in various ways. In 1736 he married the Princess Augusta of Saxe Gotha, a lady of his father's choice, and soon was quarrelling more bitterly than ever with all the arrangements made for him. He, like his father before him, set up a little Court of his own to rival that of the King and Queen; he sought out and patronized different amusements from those favoured at Court, and formed a clique against the popular Handel, who had successfully founded operas in London. He delighted to discuss political matters in public, always running down Walpole and the Government and, indeed, his Majesty himself. His favourite statesman was Lord Chesterfield. a highly polished and unscrupulous man of fashion. whose maxims of conduct have come down to us in the series of letters written to his son.

It was a matter of permanent annoyance to the Prince of Wales that his mother, and not himself, was Regent whenever the King left the country; but it was through money matters that the final breach came. The Prince of Wales influenced Pulteney—Walpole's discontented rival—to bring the grievance as to his income before Parliament; and it took all Walpole's patient efforts and arguments to move the King to sanction a more liberal arrangement.

Toward the end of this year, 1737, Queen Caroline, who had always scorned to take care of her health, became seriously ill. Grimly touching stories are told of how she fought against her malady, using the most violent remedies to enable her to attend to her royal



Walpole discussing State Affairs with Queen Caroline

duties. But one night at her reception it was impossible for her to get through the round of greetings, and she had to retire to bed. Even then she saw to business; talked with the King; interviewed Walpole; thought and planned and arranged. Soon, matters of state had to be dismissed, and farewells taken of husband and young daughters and little Prince William, Duke of Cumberland. Her eldest son, the Prince of Wales, was not sent for, and his only undutiful inquiry was "how much longer can she hold out?"

Besides the unhappy King, there was one man who cared greatly, if somewhat selfishly, for the Queen's death, and that was Walpole. He had reason to know that it was Queen Caroline's good sense and patient management of the King which had enabled him to follow out his policy and to maintain England's peace for so long. Once, in supporting his arguments against sharing in Continental quarrels, he had said to the Queen: "Fifty thousand men killed in the year in Europe, and not one Englishman!" Now, however, clouds were gathering which threatened to compel war. For some years there had been unfriendly feeling between Great Britain and Spain, chiefly through the smuggling trade carried on with the Spanish colonies by English ships. Occasionally the Spanish navy seized the adventurers' vessels and captured and punished the crews; on one occasion it was said that the Spaniards mutilated one Captain Jenkins by cutting off his ear, and then bade him carry home the tale.

This came before Parliament and aroused great indignation. As it was almost impossible to get any British person, unless a member of the Government or a revenue officer, to recognize the dishonesty of smug-

gling, even on our own shores, it was quite impossible to expect any such recognition for smuggling colonial products, in spite of trade treaties with Spain.

The unfortunate incident of Captain Jenkins and his severed ear was seized upon by all Walpole's opponents as a rallying cry demanding war with Spain. For years, Walpole, the peace lover, had tried by arbitration and diplomacy to obtain reparation for damage done to British merchant ships by Spanish pursuers, but now such measures could no longer be persevered in. Incited by the parliamentary opposition, the people at large clamoured for war, easily forgetting, then, as at all times, the great cost in materials and human lives. So Walpole gave way, with a saturnine pun at the satisfaction his declaration of hostilities aroused throughout the country: "They are ringing their bells now, but they will be wringing their hands soon!"

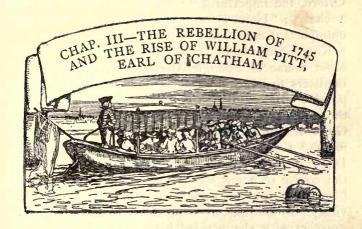
Before this came to pass, however, there was a period of success. Admiral Anson made an adventurous voyage, sacking South American ports and capturing Spanish galleons; while Admiral Vernon attacked other colonial ports of Spain, but failed to take all. The people at home, greedy for conquest and riches, now turned against Walpole altogether. He had no doubt forborne to lavish money and men even when undertaking the war, and his half-heartedness was blamed for any failure. So in the spring of 1742, when the new Parliament assembled, and there were as usual election petitions to be heard, a majority of one against the Government in the voting led Walpole to resign his office.

Other difficulties had arisen during the past two years on the Continent. The Emperor Charles VI left his

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dominions and subject states to his daughter, Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary. But the Elector of Bavaria claimed Bohemia and Austria, and France chose to support his claim; at the same time the new King of Prussia, Frederick II, claimed and invaded the province of Silesia, part of Maria Theresa's dominions. This she ceded, in the hope of thus gaining an ally, and at the time of Walpole's resignation it was evident that Great Britain must openly take sides in the quarrel and support the Empress, for whom strong sympathy was felt. Thus we came to take part in the War of the Austrian Succession.





HE new ministry, united only in their opposition to Walpole and his policy, soon had difficulties enough to contend with. Pulteney was Prime or Chief Minister; the King's former favourite, Spencer Compton, now Lord Wilmington, First Lord of the Treasury; and Carteret, Secretary for Foreign Affairs. To show the energy of "new brooms" a charge was brought against Walpole, now raised to the peerage as Earl of Orford, that he had both given and received bribes, and an inquiry in the Commons was ordered. But the business was so disturbing and unsatisfactory that it was soon seen that few persons really desired either to know of Walpole's faults or to punish him, and the inquiry fell flat. Pulteney soon tired of his great responsibilities, and accepted a peerage, sitting in the House of Lords as Earl of Bath. The story goes that when he first met there his former leader, the Earl of

Orford, the imperturbable old man greeted him with a cheery: "Here we are, you and I; the two most unimportant men in England to-day!"

King George was eager and interested in the troublesome course of Foreign Affairs and induced his new ministers to pay for 16,000 Hanoverian troops and to provide 16,000 British troops. As leader of these, in the allied armies of Austria, Holland, Hanover and Great Britain, King George set off in the spring of 1743 for the Continent. His young son, Prince William, Duke of Cumberland, marched with him; and in the course of a few weeks there was an engagement between the allied armies and the French near the village of Dettingen. King George, mounted on a great cavalry charger, led his troops, and his horse, becoming unmanageable, ran away toward the French lines. When with difficulty he was stopped, the King dismounted, and headed his men on foot, exclaiming: "I sha'n't run away now! Come on! For the honour of England, fire! and the French will run." Run they did, and the name of the little village is remembered in British history, not only for the victory, but also as the last occasion on which our troops were led by their sovereign in person.

The young Duke of Cumberland was no less brave than his father, and was severely wounded in the battle. In after days his name was to be detested for cruelty, but at this time he was seen only as a brave soldier. Amongst the officers of the British regiments was one destined to become famous in later days—James Wolfe. For two years longer the war lasted, with varying fortunes, but on the whole with success to Britain and her allies, which naturally incensed

THE '45 AND THE RISE OF PITT

France against this country. Every reader of history will guess one development of the resentment—viz. the renewed support to the Jacobite exiles and incitement of them to attack England through Scotland. So unpopular had the Government and the Hanoverian royal house become, that not only was there ready sympathy in the Highlands and in the north of England, but also in all the western counties. Even in London and in Parliament itself were many avowed supporters; and as the central figure was no longer

Prince James Edward, glum and awkward, but his son, Prince Charles Edward, aged twenty-five, there was far greater possibility of success than there had been thirty years before. The young Prince reproduced in



Coach, 1740

his person and manners much of the Stuart charm which distinguished his grandfather; "a broad forehead, blue eyes, large mouth with mobile lips and a somewhat pointed chin." All the enthusiasm of the movement gathered itself around him; sentiment and romance joined with plain hopeful determination and, as the many Scottish ballads show, Charlie was the "Darling" of a very large and energetic part of the nation.

Carteret had succeeded to a peerage with the title of Lord Granville, a name handed on honourably in British politics, and the prolonged struggle with France had made the ministry unpopular. So he resigned, to be succeeded by the Earl of Newcastle and his brother, Henry Pelham, who led what was nicknamed "The

Broad Bottom Administration." In it sat, as the name suggests, any statesman of character who could be useful within or mischievous if left out. So for a few months there was a parliament with a govern-



Women of Fashion, 1745

ment but no opposition. There was left out of the ministry, however, a young man whose knowledge and energy were bringing him to the front, but whom the King could not tolerate, William Pitt.

Early in 1745 an important battle took place between the allied armies and France at Fontenoy. Prince William, Duke of Cumberland, as Captain-General, led the British

and Hanoverian contingent, and won fame for a reckless piece of tactics. He formed his troops into a compact body, forty abreast, and marched them on, a moving column of death-dealing weapons, right through the opponents' ground and ranks. Though hundreds fell in the cannonade they met with, they marched on to the rear of the assembled French troops, literally cutting a lane through. In spite, however, of this desperate valour the French won the battle, the only victory of importance achieved by them throughout the war.

Immediately after this, the decisive Jacobite blow was struck. Prince Charles Edward, "The Young Pretender," landed in Scotland, and here the conditions

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on his arrival were exactly opposite to those when his father made his attempt thirty years before. For now even the Highland lairds were hardly ready, and instead of greeting the arrival with enthusiasm they demurred, and recommended the young Prince to "go home." "I am come home," was his reply; and he stirred them so with his gallant presence and daring plans that they quickly made ready to follow him. With a small force the Prince marched to Perth and had himself proclaimed Regent for his father, James Edward; and then made for Edinburgh and set up his Court in Holyrood Palace.

The responsible military officer for the Government in Scotland was Sir John Cope, who unaccountably failed to stop the Prince's march to Edinburgh, and on returning from Inverness the Stuart army attacked him at Prestonpans and compelled an undignified flight. This gave the rebels such new heart that they set out to march to London. The news travelled fast, and frightened the capital into taking means of defence. The Great North Road was invested with troops, and the armies met at Derby, Prince Charles learning with bitter disappointment of the lukewarm reception England was prepared to give him, and the heavy preparations of the Government to repel him. This was in the dark days of December 1745; and sadly the Highland troops retraced their steps. It is recorded of them, greatly to their honour, that in no case did they injure or destroy property or person on the march. Thoroughly in earnest in their precautions, the Government now placed the command of their army in the hands of the Duke of Cumberland; and he gathered forces double the number of those of Prince Charles,

and pursued the retreating Highlanders. At Culloden Moor they met, and now so hopelessly were they overwhelmed, and so ruthlessly were they slaughtered by the resolute and unsparing Duke, that hardly any escaped. For this merciless treatment of his father's subjects the forbidding nickname of "The Butcher" was given to Prince William, and for years he was detested throughout the country.

Though Prince Charles Stuart's standard of white, blue and red silk was thus ignominiously lowered,



Young Pretender in Highland Costume

and a price set upon his head, no one would betray him to the Government. He wandered amongst the Highlands, crossed to the Hebrides, endured all kinds of hardships, but was not given up. At length he escaped in a small boat to Brittany; but there was no hope for him of a kindly reception in France, as by this time the antagonism between that country and Great Britain was dying out, and peace was soon to be ratified in the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Once again the Government was confronted with the task of punishing rebels; and, as in 1715, many

peers were beheaded, among them being once again a Derwentwater, though not this time the head of the house. Manchester was the only English town which seriously supported the Prince, and the officers of the "Manchester Regiment" were ignominiously put to death by hanging. To the rank and file of the regiment

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was meted a merciful form of the old Roman "decimation." One in fifteen or twenty was hanged, and the rest were transported for life. Thus ended in misery and shame the Second Stuart Rebellion.

In order to prevent the great Scottish lairds from again plotting against the Crown, Parliament destroyed their old feudal dignity as territorial chieftains, and gave them some money compensation. Also, an Act disarming all Scots, unless serving in the army, and forbidding the wearing of the national dress, further weakened them. But now, as before, the need for this bitter work wrecked the popularity of the Government, and Newcastle resigned.

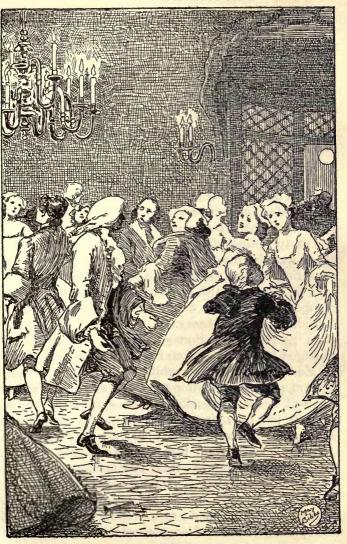
The King found such great difficulty in getting another ministry that Newcastle took office again, on condition that William Pitt should become a minister. In his need the King waived his objections, and Pitt was made Paymaster of the Forces, a position of wealth as well as dignity. He threw himself at once on the side of the King's desires, and a large grant of money was made to the troops, British and Hanoverian, still under arms on the Continent. But the war was dragging on irresolutely, and the real struggle between France and Great Britain was going on in two distant parts of the world, America and India. Of these contests the story will be told later; but in 1848 peace ensued in Europe with the signing of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

For six uneventful years the Government was able to attend to home affairs, and two important measures were carried. One belonged to finance—the business side of the government of a country—and consisted in the massing together of all the Government loans into

one consolidated fund known briefly, ever since, as "Consols," upon which a more reasonable interest was to be paid than had been offered in the original invitation to lend. The growing wealth of the country was evident, and the greater stability of the Government and the throne; so that most investors, following prudent ideas, accepted the lower interest willingly enough because there was greater security of its continuing.

Another measure, also practical, although it also had, too, its sensational side, was the Act for the Correction of the Calendar. In the sixteenth century, when all Christendom, except England, accepted the Gregorian correction of the Julian Calendar, which had become very incorrect, this country stood aloof on account of the sovereign's quarrel with the Papacy. Hence, in 1752, the British Calendar was about ten days wrong, the error having accumulated ever since the time of the Roman Emperor Augustus, through one day not being dropped occasionally to rectify the extra minutes in the calculation "365 days in I year, and once in 4 years 366 days." Naturally a good deal of confusion was bound to occur in obeying the Act, which directed that eleven days of September should be missed and that the dates should run 1st September, 2nd September, 14th September. Also the civil year was to begin on 1st January instead of on 25th March.

Apparently, not enough pains had been taken to explain to the country the reason for the change, and its harmlessness, for we read that there were riots in London and other large towns—the people supposing that their lives were being shortened, and demanding: "Give us back our eleven days!"



A Dance (From Hogarth)

Another troublesome matter which the Government had had to settle just previously was a plan for the security of the succession to the throne. The Prince of Wales died after a few days' illness, leaving a young son, Prince George, aged ten; and King George II was becoming an old man. There must be a Regent appointed in case the King should die before the Prince came of age; and the choice lay between his mother the Princess of Wales, and his uncle the Duke of Cumberland. It was decided that the Princess should be Regent, aided by a Council; and this decision had both immediate and far-reaching effects. The immediate effect was the discontent of the Duke of Cumberland, showing itself in the formation of a party against the Government. The far-reaching effect was the result of the method of training and educating young Prince George, which produced a ruler who, with better health and a wider outlook, might have changed the course of parliamentary development, indeed, of British history.

As Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Newcastle had managed to steer a peaceful course amidst the tangle of European disputes, whilst his brother, Henry Pelham, gave his attention to reform and good government at home. A scoffing critic expressed the impatience felt by a few statesmen at the quiet trend of things: "The House of Commons is like a Quarter Sessions—all turnpikes and poor rates"; but the usefulness of this unsensational work is apparent enough now. Among other novelties, the guarding of London was placed on a securer footing, patrols of able-bodied men taking the place of decrepit watchmen. Also, the splendid collection of

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national treasures housed in the British Museum was begun.

The death of Pelham in 1754 marked the beginning of a time of trouble. The Duke of Newcastle was well content to plan and intrigue in European politics, and he attached great importance to Hanover and its position. Meanwhile in distant India the energetic generals of France were making things difficult for the East India Company and their guards, and in Canada the equally able French governors persistently encroached on British territory. Tidings of the last reached home, and the situation had some attention paid to it, but in India matters were allowed to drift. An open breach between Newcastle and Pitt came about when the

former proposed to pay German states to protect Hanover, and when in 1756 the French seized Minorca, and the mistakes of Admiral Byng, who had charge of naval defence, formed a laughing-stock, Newcastle had to resign.

Then began a new state of things. The Duke of Devonshire became First Lord of the Treasury, and William Pitt, Secretary of State. During his years of waiting and more or less impatient disapproval, Pit had had opportunities



Men of Fashion in 1745

of seeing how wickedly "slack," every part of the British service had become. Statesmen were lukewarm or undecided; officers in the navy and army were incompetent—one plain reason being that posts were given by favouritism instead of in recognition of fitness. This was the first condition which he set himself to alter in the navy and army, by giving com-

missions to, and promoting, men who possessed ability and zeal. Another matter he had to reform was the slow and contented way of doing only just so much as could not be avoided, whether in keeping the peace or in making war. After Minorca, such methods were impossible; so he appealed to the country and provided money and men. He defied the timid counsels of Devonshire and, with an arrogance which was afterwards justified, insisted: "I know that I can save this nation, and that no one else can."

Whilst his predecessor had actually asked that Hessian dragoons should be brought over to England to guard against a French invasion, he dismissed even the Hanoverian Guards, and then reorganized the national militia and raised regiments from the Scottish Highlands as well as from England. This energy infected the country, and though the House of Commons was inclined to look askance at the new methods, they won approval from the solid merchant and trading classes. Everyone felt that Pitt's will was supreme, although the Duke of Devonshire, as Prime Minister, was nominally at the head of affairs. One great feature of Pitt's superiority to that of his predecessors was his habit of forming a method of doing what might be necessary; and another, that of striking early and hard.

Whilst France was becoming mischievously active in America and in India, Pitt sent naval expeditions to harass the coasts of France. He recognized that a strong navy was essential, and saw to it that ships and men were forthcoming. The system of "impressing" able-bodied men in seaports and fishing villages, or compulsory naval service, was still, and for many years later, in vogue. It is strange to reflect that

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England's victories at sea and on land in the eighteenth century were won by a navy and army whose ranks were filled with unwilling, and in many cases ruffianly and even criminal, units of the population hastily "impressed" and forced to serve. Pitt was planning to take decisive action in Canada, and sent out fresh instructions and large contingents of men under resolute and energetic officers. Of such was James Wolfe, of whose qualities Pitt had the highest opinion, and whose value will be described in the story of Canada (Chapter IV).

In the anger felt by both Government and people against the humiliation of British sea power under Admiral Byng, nothing less than a Court Martial could suffice. Sentence of death was pronounced, not for cowardice, but for "doing less than his utmost to carry out his instructions." The punishment expressed the new spirit of zeal which Pitt's example and control had encouraged, but he himself incurred both royal and popular displeasure by pleading for the fallen commander. The incident gave rise to a criticism on the part of the French philosopher Voltaire which has perpetuated the memory of an incident which otherwise would have been amongst the many forgotten ones of that troublous time. In a spirit of pungent scoffing at British ways and methods generally, he observed that, when setting men to do impossible tasks, they now and then shot an admiral "pour encourager les autres."

The ill-success of the British arms in Hanover under the Duke of Cumberland, which led him to sign it away to France in the Treaty of Klosterseven, won from the King the indignant comment: "Here is my son, who has ruined me and disgraced himself." And to Pitt it fell to seek to remedy the defeat. He hoped

to accomplish this by making an alliance with Prussia; but, as Great Britain could not hope to provide the huge armies which would be necessary, he turned his attention to helping friendly allies with money, and developing the navy so as to hold command of the seas. The need was so keenly recognized, and Pitt's policy had so rousing an effect upon the people of this country, that the money-loving spirit and desire for opportunity to get rich, which had grown so strong under Walpole, were almost banished. Englishmen were willing to risk and to dare after the fashion of the bold Tudor times; and Pitt's high-hearted way of conducting things gave fresh spirit to each fighter. "No man ever entered Mr Pitt's room who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in," was said by an officer who had known what it was to endure discouragement from the Government he served. Under Pitt, for the first time for many years, there was recognized the difference between good service and bad, between capacity and inefficiency, between intelligence and stupidity, and it became worth while to serve wholeheartedly and with ability. This attracted abler men to posts of difficulty and danger, and an entirely new spirit animated not only the services but also the country at large.

Meanwhile Pitt's policy of harassing France on her own shores served usefully to hamper her movements in India and also paved the way for the coming British successes and supremacy at sea. His determination to have a powerful fleet gave the British great advantages in the struggle in Canada no less than in the Mediterranean; and the year 1759 was deservedly known as the "Year of Victories," and made William

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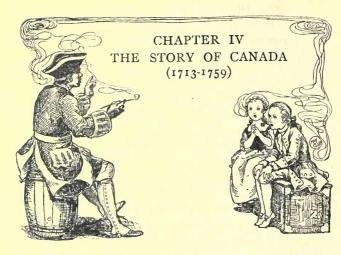
Pitt, the minister to whom this result was so largely owing, the most powerful man in the kingdom. Well might King George mutter ruefully: "Ministers are King in this country!"

In October of the next year the King died suddenly, to be succeeded by his grandson, Prince George, aged twenty-three. With him a new era begins, and throughout his reign there is renewed the struggle between Parliament and Crown which had been so satisfactorily settled during the years of his predecessors.

Looking back upon the reign of George II, which began with Walpole supreme and ended with Pitt supreme, we see that the two great European wars in which Great Britain was concerned—the War of the Austrian Succession (1742-1748) and the war still being waged at the King's death (afterwards to be known as the Seven Years' War)—enabled the country to establish her colonial position in America and in India, and so to increase her naval power as to make her mistress of the seas.



Posture Master



HE eighteenth century is distinguished in our history on account of the great expansion of the British Empire which took place. In 1713 the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, which closed the War of the Spanish Succession, gave many advantages to Great Britain. Not only did she hold in Europe, Minorca and Gibraltar, at once watch-towers and stepping-stones, but also in the New World she had the territory round the great inlet of Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. On the western shore of the Atlantic, extending from Massachusetts in the North to Florida in the South, were the settlements known as "New England." Between these and the newly acquired Hudson's Bay Territory lay "New France," and as Florida was a Spanish colony, and midway along the "New England" states was New Amsterdam, a Dutch colony, it will be seen

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that any dispute between France, Spain, Holland and Great Britain would be much embittered by quarrels between their respective colonies, whilst quarrels between the colonies would be taken up and supported by their mother countries.

There was, however, an advantage to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht beyond that of possessing fresh American territory—viz. by the position of this territory the colonies of France and Spain were prevented from joining, and thus overmatching the British.

On looking at a map of North America it is seen that between Canada and Louisiana, the north-easterly and south-westerly French possessions, lies a great expanse of country, peopled at the time in question by Indians. These tribes were skilful hunters, and with them the French settlers traded in furs. To protect their trade, and to impress the Indians, the French had built an irregular line of forts from Louisburg to the foot of the Alleghany Mountains; and besides holding Canada, in the basin of the St Lawrence, and the Valley of the Mississippi, they claimed also the basin of the Ohio, south of the Great Lakes.

At the same time the narrow strip of seaboard, which had at first been amply large for the "New England" settlers, was becoming thickly populated, and they began to extend their boundaries westward, there to meet the barrier of the French forts. In 1754 there were about 80,000 French colonists in America, and nearly eighteen times as many British.

We will pause for a moment and look back on the manner of the founding of these French and English settlements. It must be remembered that not England, but Spain and Portugal were the happy discoverers of

the New World in the fifteenth century. The luxuriant vegetation and great mineral wealth of America made it a very desirable possession; and soon there were Spanish settlers working the gold and silver mines, and Portuguese planters cultivating sugar and tobacco. According to the trade laws of most of the European countries, colonies were so far subject to the mother country that they might not sell their products to any other; hence England was finding herself shut out from the great material advantages of the New World. For many years, as all lovers of adventure and romance delight to remember, daring British buccaneers waylaid the Spanish treasure ships and brought their cargoes home in triumph.

Then in the seventeenth century numbers of English people who were being persecuted on account of their religion, both Catholics and Dissenters from the Church of England, set out for America in search of religous freedom. They were mostly country people, and they went intending to work for their living by cultivating the land on small farms similar to English ones.

Thus there were the three distinct kinds of settlements: the mining (Spanish); the "planters" (Portuguese); and the farming (English); and by the middle of the seventeenth century there were also French and Dutch colonies. All the European settlers, except a few of the Dutch and English, had been placed, or "planted" in the New World by their various governments; only our own colonists had gone in a succession of small parties, on their own account and independently. Thus it came about that the French colonies, for instance, were much more closely regulated by their governors than the English. The "New

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England" states were left free to make their own laws in their own parliaments, and were neighbourly rather than united. Another difference between the British colonies

and the rest was that there was a greater variety of religious beliefs and ideals in the former than in the latter. King Louis XIV had forbidden the Huguenot exiles to emigrate to Canada or Louisiana—"no heretic should set foot in the colonies to form a republic there"; and their trading methods were closely controlled by France. Among the English colonies, Virginia, "earth's only Paradise" as the poet Michael Drayton called it, was Church of England; Maryland was Roman Catholic; the New England states were Puritan. In Virginia and Maryland, tropical products, such as the sugarcane and tobacco, were cultivated by slave labour on large plantations; in the Puritan states, the



settlers cultivated the land by their own labour. But though the British Colonies were allowed only to trade with England, they were not so closely in touch with their Home Government as were the French colonies.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, the resolute ambition of France to annex more territory to Canada led the military governor, Duquesne, to destroy an English fort at the source of the Ohio River and to establish a garrison of his own there, calling it Fort Duquesne. He strengthened the line of forts and shut out all British colonists from the fertile valley. The colony of Virginia tried to retaliate, and a small expedition sent out by the governor under a young soldier, named George Washington, attacked Fort Duquesne, but was defeated. The Home Government

then sent a regiment of troops under General Braddock, and it, too, was completely overcome by the French and their allies, the native "Redskins." Soon after this the Seven Years' War began, in which it was part of the policy of Great Britain directed by Pitt's intelligence to fight France ashore and afloat, in Europe and in America as well as in India, and thus to prevent her concentrating large forces at any spot of her dominions. The cost was enormous: was levied, not only to furnish and equip British regiments, but also to pay foreign allies; men were needed in thousands. Then it was that Pitt raised for the American service the famous Highland regiments under the leadership of the lairds of clans who, a few years before, were fighting for the Stuart exile.

Meanwhile the great demands on French wealth and manhood prevented the Canadian army and its leader from being well supported. The impetuous Duquesne was recalled, and the Marquis de Montcalm sent in his place. At Montreal, commanding Lake Ontario and Lake Champlain, he awaited with his tiny army of French troops, 6000 men, and the Canadian Militia, the attack of the British forces. These were under the command of Lord Loudoun, but, partly through dividing his men, and partly through the late arrival of the fleet which was to assist him, he quite failed to make any impression upon the French position.

Undaunted by this failure, Pitt made more careful plans; he appointed Lord Abercrombie to succeed Lord Loudoun, and Admiral Boscawen instead of the dilatory Admiral Holbourne, and raised to important positions any young and promising officers in the service. Among these was one named James Wolfe, to become

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famous as one of Britain's greatest military heroes in the coming struggle. The attack was to be made

in three places at once: at Ticonderoga, led by Abercrombie himself; at Louisburg, by Colonel Amherst, with Wolfe as a brigadier under him; and at Fort Duquesne, by Brigadier John Forbes.

At Ticonderoga Montcalm awaited the British attack, having with him not quite 4000 men; and, when it was made, so ill-managed was it, and so resolute his defence, that the British under Abercrombie had to retreat. A young officer



General Wolfe

named Bradstreet was more fortunate. Instructed to seize Fort Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, he contrived to cross the lake in darkness, and to surprise and take the fort, which, from its position, gave command of the French lines. At Fort Duquesne, Brigadier Forbes, with an untrained army, of whom the thousand Highlanders were the most valuable part, had set about his task with determination and vigour. Rather than approach Fort Duquesne by the same way as had the unfortunate General Braddock, he cut a road through the forest from Pennsylvania, and found a way over the mountains. His approach so took the heart out of the French garrison that they blew up the fort and fled. Forbes seized the position and renamed it Pittsburg in honour of the great minister. The successful leader did not live to enjoy the honour he had won, for, struck down by a painful disease, he had to be borne helpless away to Philadelphia, where he died a few months later.

The next year (1759) Pitt resolved to make a

systematic and extended attack in order to crush the French power in America. The British forces were to strike simultaneously in four places, since three had been insufficient. To Colonel Amherst was given the supreme command, instead of Lord Abercrombie, with instructions to make for Ticonderoga, take it, and then sail up Lake Champlain to join Wolfe. Wolfe was to go by way of the St Lawrence River and besiege Quebec; while General Prideaux had the task of seizing Fort Niagara, and was then to cross Lake Ontario and thus get to Montreal. The fourth leader was to hold Pittsburg, and thence strike at the French forts lying toward Lake Erie.

This time fortune favoured the English. Pittsburg was held and the forts reduced; Prideaux's army successfully took Fort Niagara; the French defenders burned Ticonderoga as Amherst approached, so that he had no resistance to overcome. But the glory of the expedition rested upon Wolfe. Amherst was to have hastened to join him, but he delayed, building forts and constructing boats, and then there set in October storms which drove him and his fleet to harbour. So Wolfe waited for him in vain with a dwindling force of between 8000 and 9000 men, and then prepared to attack Montcalm in his secure position and with his army of 15,000. Montcalm was a fine character and an able soldier. He knew the wisdom of wearing down the besiegers' patience, and, quoting Roman history, vowed to play a waiting game: "I will be Fabius Cunctator," he observed, "not Hannibal." For eleven weeks the British troops besieged Quebec, and their leader had become so ill and discouraged that,

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in his despatch home, he told Pitt that he despaired of victory.

In an almost forlorn hope he resolved to distract the enemy's attention and then to attack the town by way of the steep cliff, the Heights of Abraham, which on one side gave it an almost impregnable position. He sent a small detachment of men in boats up the river to the admiral's fleet, and the French leader set an able second, de Bougainville, to watch the movements of the little force, with a strong body of soldiers. The decoy, safe on the British ships, could smile to see the marching and countermarching of the French troops as they kept near the ships drifting up and down on the tide! Then Wolfe planned on a dark night to lead a small band of volunteers by a precipitous route up the cliff above the river. Silently gliding along with muffled oars, they neared the landing place, and Wolfe, in the boat with some of his officers, whispered a verse from a poem which had appeared a few years previously. It was Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchvard":

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour,
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

"I would rather," said he, "be the author of that poem than take Quebec." Fortune favoured the daring attempt and, undetected, the little force scaled the heights at the steepest part, to find that the sentries, so secure in their position, had gone to their tents instead of keeping watch.

We may picture the mortified surprise with which

Montcalm prepared to marshal his troops, in a long line, to encounter the enemy. The British, about half as many in numbers, were rather more closely massed, as Wolfe passed along the front delivering his final orders. Montcalm was similarly engaged, and as he withdrew he ordered the French to charge. The British lines stood firm till the foe was but a few yards distant, and then fired a crashing volley into the advancing ranks. As they fell back it was followed by another deadly storm of shot, which made them turn and flee, pursued by the British. Wolfe had been struck by one of the French bullets, and as he fell an adjutant told him "They run! They run!" "Who run?" said Wolfe. "The enemy," was the reply. "Then I die happy," murmured the hero, and so passed away. Strangely enough, Montcalm also was seriously wounded, and though he could be carried from the field he died the next day. None of the French officers attempted to hold the position, and the British triumphantly entered Quebec.

In the meantime, people at home were fearing the news from Canada, the Government having published Wolfe's last despatch declaring his hopelessness; and when the news of the great victory reached London the city went mad with rejoicing. A letter-writer of the period describes the feeling of the public during that month of suspense: "They despaired, they triumphed, and they wept; for Wolfe had fallen in the hour of victory."

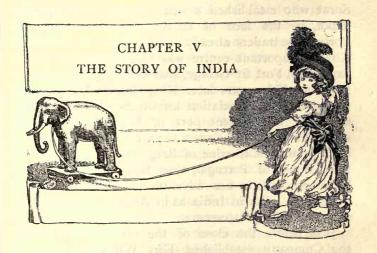
In Canada, Amherst carried on the flag of victory, and the fleet under Admiral Saunders set sail for England. As he neared the shore he heard that an English squadron was chasing the French fleet, which had ventured to leave Brest, so hastened with two



Wolfe mortally wounded at Quebec

or three ships to join the pursuit. But before he could come up with the squadron it had achieved a victory under Admiral Hawke, in the midst of a great tempest. This was felt to be the greatest naval success since the defeat of the Spanish Armada. series of brilliant achievements by land and sea fitted in well with the preceding victories on the Continent, and together they caused 1750 to be known as the "Annus Mirabilis" (the "Year of Victories"). The power of France was completely crushed at sea, much reduced on land, and her occupation of Canada ended. Thenceforward the "British flag waved without a rival from the North Pole to the boundary of Spanish America."





N 1707, a few years before the accession of George I, there died in India, the land of mystery, the last of the Emperors, Aurungzebe the Great Mogul. This potentate, though his empire was falling to pieces, had kept up the splendours of Imperial state, and moved the seat of government from Agra, the ancient capital, to Delhi. But his viceroys, or subahdars, had thrown off their allegiance, and each ruled his kingdom as an independent sovereign. Perpetual quarrels went on between the neighbouring chieftains, and thus it was that when the French and English intruders, who at first were merely traders under the gracious protection of the Mogul, fought out their great contest, they each used as allies, what native princes they could influence, and gradually gained supremacy over them.

In 1613 there had come some English merchants to

Surat who established a small "factory," or trading depot, in the face of strong opposition from the Portuguese traders already settled there. A little later a more important centre was planted on the southeast coast, Fort St George, afterwards to be known as Madras. Fifty years later King Charles II presented to the trading association known as the East India Company the ancient port of Bombay, which had come to the English Crown as part of his bride's dowry. This princess, Catherine of Braganza, belonging to the royal house of Portugal, thus bestowed part of the heirlooms which her adventurous countrymen had discovered. For in India, as in America, England was a comparatively late-comer.

Just before the close of the seventeenth century the Company established Fort William, afterwards Calcutta, in Bengal; so that when our story opens the British were represented in India by the three trade centres in Madras, Bombay and Bengal, with the smaller western part of Surat. The French had similar centres at Pondicherry in the Carnatic, at Chandernagore, and at Mahè; and in India, as in America, they were not merely independent traders or settlers, but were organized and controlled by a military governor sent by the French Government.

The native states were disturbed and broken by religious quarrels, the old Mohammedan empire having grafted upon it a Hindu power whose seat was in the highlands of the Western Deccan. These highlanders, or Mahrattas, by their enthusiasm and daring rapidly became stronger than any of their Mohammedan neighbours, and at one time it seemed possible that they would conquer the whole of India. In 1741

Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, an ambitious and resolute man, saw the opportunity of thwarting the English by persuading native rulers to accept French assistance in their rivalries. An equally capable governor, La Bourdonnais, was in authority on the Isle of France (Mauritius), a stepping-stone from Europe to India. In 1746, when England was fighting against France in the War of the Austrian Succession, La Bourdonnais served his country well by taking Madras from the English. Misunderstandings between him and Dupleix prevented this advantage from being pressed, and La Bourdonnais was recalled to France in disgrace. The British vainly tried to dislodge Dupleix from Pondicherry, and on the whole were losers in this part of the contest; but in 1748 the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen) gave them back Madras.

The death of the Nizam, Viceroy of the Deccan, in the same year left two claimants for his seat. Dupleix strongly supported one, the British the other, and in the fighting which ensued the prince who was supported by the French was victorious. In return he made Dupleix Governor of the Carnatic; and the lieutenant, or nawab, of the Carnatic was practically subject to him. This gave the French so great an advantage that the English saw their opportunities for expansion of trade rapidly disappearing, especially as Dupleix arrogantly ignored the treaty settlement and threatened to seize Madras again. As a return blow the English determined to make one more effort. Amongst the volunteers in the Company's service was a young clerk, in the Madras factory, named Robert Clive. We have to remember that in the early stages of the contest

between Great Britain and France the active fighting was carried on by native soldiers (sepoys), the subjects of some allied chieftain, and the clerks and workers in the employ of the Company. As Lord Clarendon says in his History: "When the merchants' clerks were almost compelled in self-defence to turn soldiers, the name of Ensign, or Lieutenant, Clive is often and honourably mentioned, and during the intervals of hostilities he returned to his ledgers and accounts."

The records of these years of struggle, which led to the conquest of India for the British Empire, show two names inscribed on the roll of fame: Robert Clive and Warren Hastings. Clive, who was the son of a country gentleman in Shropshire, and grew up with the reputation of a troublesome boy, was sent out at the age of seventeen to a clerkship in the Madras factory of the East India Company. The venture in those days almost amounted to banishment, for the voyage often took a year to accomplish, and the post he was sent to fill was one of numerous ill-paid ones which could hardly be expected to lead to honour.

Young Clive, who had been unwilling to learn at school, found himself so bored with the tedious time on board ship, and the long delay, that he set himself to learn Portuguese, then the chief language of trade in the East. Arrived at last at Madras, with little money, in a trying climate and amongst total strangers, he spent a long and homesick time in which, as he wrote in a letter home, "I have not enjoyed one happy day since I left my native country." His one solace was the freedom granted him to use the library of the governor of the fort; and in his eager interest he was able in some measure to make up for his idleness at school.

When Dupleix's attempt on Madras and his seizure of the governor broke up the English fort, Clive escaped to Fort St David, and threw in his lot with the little regiment composed of the Company's servants. Here he had found work congenial and for which he was suited. The element of danger, the need for watchfulness, the opportunities for resource, and the responsibility of carrying out difficult tasks, brought out many unsuspected capacities, and soon he was marked as a promising soldier. Then, when Madras was restored to the English, came a few months of office work again, to be followed by the adventurous enterprise for which he volunteered in 1751. With a small force of sepoys he pressed on through a blinding thunderstorm to the walls of Arcot, where the defenders were so impressed with his daring that they fled, leaving Clive to occupy the fort. Then the tables were uncomfortably turned; for some of the native allies of the French governor besieged Clive and his tiny army in the town they had taken. The fine character of the young leader shines out in the story told of the devotion inspired in his men. As the garrison's supplies became almost exhausted, his sepoys begged him and his English officers to eat the remaining store of rice, and to leave for them only the water in which it had been boiled.

Clive's courage and audacity so impressed the Mahrattas that their chieftain proclaimed: "I never thought before that the English could fight; now I will help them"; and these allies were the means of winning one victory after another. They gave the young Englishman the title of "Sabat Jung," the "Valiant Warrior"; and with all the glory of a successful military leader he came

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back to visit his native land, bringing his bride with him. She was the daughter of the Astronomer-Royal, and



George II

both were welcomed and feasted everywhere, and Clive-"General Clive," as the employés of the East India House jestingly called him-was presented by the Company with a sword of honour. Even his stern and unforgiving father had to relent toward the former scapegrace, and recognize in him a hero.

The year after his return there was a general election, and the young soldier, thinking to win honour in politics as well as in war, stood for St Michael's, in Cornwall,

a "pocket" borough of the Earl of Sandwich. He was unable to take his seat for, though he was returned, his opponents presented a petition and he was unseated on the charge of "corrupt practices" in the voters. Disappointed and weary of idleness, he returned to India; and in recognition of his services went back as Governor of Fort St David and with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel of the British Army.

On arriving, he found that a friendly agreement had been made between the Governor of Pondicherry and the Governor of Madras, so that he was free to seek useful work elsewhere. He broke up a gang of pirates on the west coast and, hearing evil tidings from Calcutta, set off thither. The native lieutenant, Surajah Dowlah, an avaricious tyrant, had seized the English merchants, plundered their houses and confined them and their wives and families in a small dungeon twenty

feet square, ever afterwards known in British history as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Nearly 150 persons were shut in, to endure all the horrors of suffocation, while the native troops mocked them through the bars. In the morning, when the brutal governor permitted the door to be opened, there were but twenty-three survivors, of whom one was a woman, and they were parched with fever and nearly maddened by the scene of terror they had passed through. Surajah Dowlah ordered a huge grave to be dug, and into it the dead bodies were thrown, whilst the miserable living were in almost more wretched case, for they were imprisoned and nearly starved, in the hope of wringing further wealth from them.

Dowlah then issued orders that no Englishman should attempt to dwell in Calcutta, and to commemorate his "victory" changed its name to Alinagore, "The Port of God." But vengeance was near. When the tidings reached Madras, no time was lost in despatching Admiral Watson's fleet, and the army under the command of Clive, to Bengal. It was a time of storm and tempest, and only after two months did they arrive and begin action. Soon Fort William was overcome, Calcutta retaken, and Chandernagore, where the French had been approached by Surajah Dowlah, captured. Then Clive sought to establish a strong and permanent authority; and plans were made for appointing as governor Meer Jaffier, the head of the Nawab's army. But much plotting and intrigue were necessary; and unfortunately Clive condescended to forge the signature of his colleague, Admiral Watson, in order to prevent delay in despatching a document.

In the meantime Surajah Dowlah began to realize

his peril, and from his retreat at Moorshedabad sent lavish gifts to Calcutta to appease the anger of the English. Clive's new ally was slow in acting on the agreement, and advantage was taken of traitors within the camp of the Nawab, who with an immense army moved on to Plassey. It was decided—reluctantly by his advisers—that Clive should advance with his small force and engage the enemy. We read that the night before the battle the armies lay less than a mile apart: Surajah Dowlah's vast army occupying the plain and Clive's handful a grove within sight, where was plainly heard the Indian drums and tom-toms. With dawn the enemy advanced, 40,000 infantry and 15,000 cavalry, their heavy guns drawn by oxen and small ones manned by the French allies, who were supporting the Nawab against the English. Clive's army of British troops and sepoys numbered about 3000, and well might he have quailed as the peril of the enterprise became clear.

But the large army of Surajah Dowlah was ill-disciplined, and he himself distracted with cowardly doubts. When it was seen that the first firings had resulted in but very little damage to the British, and heavy loss, including that of many of the officers, to the Nawab's troops, he ordered a retreat. Clive at once took advantage of this, and pressed in pursuit. Indignant at having to run, the French allies of Dowlah tried to stand firm, but were swept away with the terrified hosts. For terror it was, and not loss, which vanquished them. There were only a few hundreds killed out of the 60,000, and of Clive's gallant band only two or three score. The regiment which led has ever since borne the proud motto "Primus in Indis," and with the victory at Plassey began the British

supremacy over French and natives alike, which resulted in our Indian Empire.

Then Clive hastened to Moorshedabad and installed Meer Jaffier as Nawab in the place of Surajah Dowlah, who, disguised as a merchant, escaped from the city, to be captured a few days later and put to death. Heavy tribute was exacted from the new subjects of the Company and Clive, amongst them, became a rich man, and was made Governor of Bengal. His first care was to compel peace by dislodging the French from the Carnatic; his next to subdue the native tribes, which resented Meer Jaffier's authority. So great was the awe his name inspired amongst the Hindus,

that his small army found their enemies vanish at its approach. Finally, after defeating a Dutch expedition sent to profit by the disturbance of the country, Clive set out for England.

Again he sought to enter Parliament, and in 1761 took his seat in the House of Commons. There he set himself to get the



Lackey extinguishing his Link

management of Indian affairs placed on a better footing. Then came bad news from Bengal. The native races were resenting the government of the East India Company, and the servants and soldiers of the Company were more set upon getting rich or leading easy lives than in trading honestly and ruling well. Once more Clive, now Lord Clive, went

out to India, this time as Commander-in-Chief, and reached Calcutta in the spring of 1765. A task no less



fen's Boots and Shoes, Eighteenth Century

difficult than before awaited him; for besides subduing foes he had to introduce reforms in the Company's methods of taxing and trading. He was threatened with a mutiny amongst the British officers of the troops in the Company's service, and only by resolute dealing suppressed it. Then it was necessary to establish friendly relations with the native princes and peaceful arrangements with the French and Dutch trading companies. Wisely and judiciously he dealt

with all these difficult matters, but his reforms made him many enemies, so that when, in 1767, he returned home he was no longer accepted as the popular hero. His great wealth easily outshone that of most English peers; his Eastern manner of life shocked his neighbours; his powerful office abroad had developed an arrogant manner of thought and speech which offended English society.

Then murmurs and whispered accusations became public charges, and the hero of Plassey was obliged to defend his conduct in the House of Commons against those who saw in him an oppressor, a taker of bribes, and an unprincipled tyrant. For more than a year an inquiry lasted, which searched into all his management of Indian affairs; and, though Parliament acquitted him of the serious offences with which he was charged, the trouble so wrought upon his mind that he became a prey to melancholy. To forget his unhappiness he took opium, and, becoming more

and more unhinged, died miserably by his own hand.

The other great name connected with the story of India is that of Warren Hastings. Like Clive he entered the service of the East India Company when he was quite young, and like him rose in it to a position of honour. Unlike Clive he had had a distinguished career at school and gave promise of becoming a good classical scholar, when he had to leave through the death of his uncle and guardian. So that in 1750, at the age of seventeen, we see Hastings setting out for Calcutta to become a clerk in the factory there, in the year in which Clive won his victory at Arcot.

Two years later Warren Hastings was sent to another factory near Moorshedabad, where he was when the tyrant Surajah Dowlah began his cruelties toward the English. Hastings, with the rest of the Company's servants there, was seized and imprisoned by Dowlah just before the terrible episode of the Black Hole of Calcutta. He managed to escape, and entered Clive's army, marching in the ranks, and keen to serve "the finest captain in the world." After the victory at Plassey he was appointed agent-in-charge for the Company at Meer Jaffier's court.

In 1761, while Clive was in England winning his seat in Parliament, Hastings had a further promotion. He was made a member of the Council which, with the governor, managed the Company's Indian affairs. Three years later he returned to England, and probably his ship met Clive's in mid-ocean as the latter went back to restore order between the native princes and the English traders. Hastings was now about thirty years of age, and after his stay in India entered with

much zest into the intellectual interests of English scholars. One of those he met was the famous Dr Johnson.

After a sojourn of four years in England, Warren Hastings again took office under the Company, and went to Madras as a member of the Council of Management. There he straightened out the tangled affairs of accounts and stores, of goods and buildings, and filled the vacancies in the factory staff caused by the clerks having been so largely employed as soldiers. Soon he was rewarded with the post of Governor of Bengal, a dignity held by Clive twelve years before; and a position which had become even more exacting and difficult than formerly. He had to keep the peace with the native ruler of the province, who had much pomp but little power; to control the trade and expenses so that the directors of the Company were satisfied; and always to steer a course which should prevent the native princes from combining to overthrow the British authority.

Difficulties had arisen in Bengal owing to the rivalry of two princes, a Mohammedan and a Hindu. The latter, the Maharajah Nuncomar, had repeatedly plotted against the English, and Clive had sanctioned the claim of the Mohammedan prince, and placed him on the throne. This Nuncomar never forgave; he artfully corresponded with agents of the Company, and laid the blame of the poor trade of the province upon the bad government of his successful rival. So the directors instructed Hastings, as one of his first duties, to depose the Mohammedan prince and inquire thoroughly into the revenues. Very willingly he undertook the task, and had the prince conveyed by

force from his palace and imprisoned; naming as his successor a young lad under age. The son of the Maharajah Nuncomar was appointed his guardian, but this by no means satisfied Nuncomar himself, and he continued his mischievous plotting.

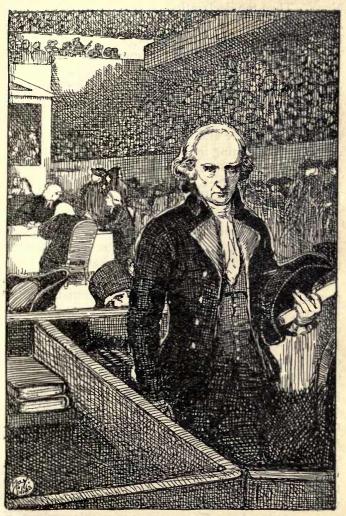
Then, in order to get money for the Company, Hastings ordered certain tribute paid for permission to trade to be paid no longer, and sent a military force to take possession of the district. For the same reason he afterwards sold the territory to the rich Nawab of Oude, and hired British soldiers and used the Company's sepoys in order to help him to conquer some gallant hill tribes and annex their territory. All this sounds very high-handed and unusual, but we must remember that in those days the English officials were obliged to deal as they could with the various native authorities, and to hold their positions at all costs. But the British Government had begun to realize that matters could no longer go on as in the past, and, since they desired both to protect British interests and to act fairly toward India, they instituted a more direct control than formerly.

Hence by Act of Parliament, introduced by Lord North, there was to be, after 1773, a Governor-General of Bengal, supreme over other provinces, assisted by a council, some of whom were the Company's officials in India, and some men sent out from England. On the arrival of the latter they found several things to disapprove of in Warren Hastings' management, and were beset by complaints from Hindus of injuries suffered. Foremost among the accusers was Nuncomar; and an inquiry into his charges was about to take place when Hastings, becoming aware of the danger, had him arrested and imprisoned on a charge of forgery. The

judge before whom he was tried was a friend of Hastings, and much indebted to him in the past; so that his sentence of death passed upon Nuncomar was afterwards declared unjust, and severely censured by the British Government.

The new Regulations stated that the Governor-General (Hastings) was appointed by the Crown for five years, but that on appeal from the Company he might be removed at any time. As the Company in England were informed of the high-handed dealings of Hastings, and as the new Council were full of complaints against him, it began to be felt desirable to dismiss a powerful servant who had served too energetically. But in 1778 the great struggle between Great Britain and France was going on-in Europe, in America and even in India. For the great confederacy of Mahratta chiefs were approached by French agents, inviting them to join with France in banishing the English from India. Warren Hastings was immediately alive to the danger, and resolved at all hazards to fight, and to fight soon, attacking the Mahrattas before France could organize a great army to help them. To obtain money, Hastings used the power which the Englishmen's position gave them with the native races, to demand and then to compel, heavy contributions from various rajahs. He attempted to imprison the Rajah of Benares, who had refused to contribute, and had to flee from the Indian prince's resent ful subjects. Also, he lent British troops to the young Nawab of Oude to compel his guardians, two aged princesses, to give up the revenues they held in trust for him.

Fortunately the Home Government sent out further troops under a brilliant general, Sir Eyre Coote, and they completely defeated the French army at Porto



Hastings departing after one of Burke's Speeches

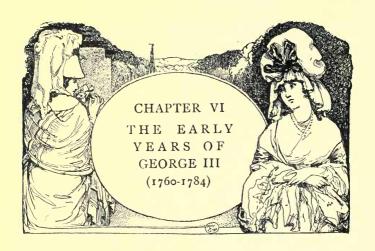
Novo. Then the declaration of peace between France and Great Britain put a stop to open hostilities between the French and English in India (1780), and Hastings was free to give his attention to many needed reforms. It was no empty boast that he made when he said some years before: "My whole time and all my thoughts are devoted to the service of the Company"; and now, when the British in India meant not merely traders settled here and there on sufferance, but a great ruling power claiming immense territory and controlling most of the native sovereigns, his early devotion had in no wise become slack. But it was now paid to an Imperial idea instead of to a business relation. "It is my object," he wrote, "to make the British nation paramount in India, and to accept the allegiance of such of our neighbours as shall sue to be enlisted among the friends and allies of the King of Great Britain."

For two years he pursued this policy in comparative peace. New members had been appointed to the Council, and that body no longer thwarted all the designs of its president. But the storm was gathering. News travelled slowly in those days, so that the reports carried to England of the arbitrary doings of the Governor-General of India were long in taking full effect. At length, however, committees of inquiry sat in Parliament, and Hastings was requested to resign. He came back to England to find an angry array of politicians intending to impeach him for his conduct of affairs. Their leader was the great statesman Edmund Burke, the clearest and deepest thinker of the time; and when Hastings stood for trial at the bar of the House his principal accuser was the most eloquent orator of the day. For seven years this zealous, if

not over scrupulous, public servant had to endure the anxiety and suspense of a hotly pressed prosecution. Needless to say, it ruined him and broke his health, embittered his spirit and destroyed the peace of his old age; though his judges acquitted him of the charges of tyranny and extortion.

Lord Cornwallis was sent out to be Governor-General in his place, and he successfully carried on the work of Hastings, annexing part of Mysore in putting down an attempted rebellion in that province. Later governors also built on his firm foundations, so that the story of India for the next twenty years is comparatively uneventful. Exactly a century ago the Governor-General of India was the Marquis Wellesley, whose illustrious soldier-brother, Arthur, won his earliest fame there in the victories of Assaye and Argaum. The revolt thus crushed was largely due to the evil influence of Buonaparte, and in Arthur Wellesley's conquest might be seen an anticipation of his final defeat of Napoleon. The Marquis Wellesley it was who first clearly formulated the intention of bringing the whole of India under the British Crown.

As we read of the impressive ceremonial with which King George was crowned at Delhi in 1912, it is interesting to recall the day of small things in connexion with the British Empire. Instead of the forts and factories of "John Company," with a small British settlement here and there amidst a questioning and hostile people, we saw the vast population under their native princes offering loyal homage to our King-Emperor.



ROM 1714 to 1760 our country was, as we have seen, governed by sovereigns of foreign birth, whose chief interests lay outside their British realm. Both George I and George II were only too pleased to set sail each year from England to Hanover, and both thought their little Electorate of more importance than their island kingdom. Fortunately, this indifference worked well instead of ill, for the reins of power were in the hands of two successive ministers who not only saw clearly what needed to be done, but also had the resolution to bring it about. Walpole, in his determination to maintain peace with other European nations, prevented the squandering of British blood and wealth in Continental wars. Pitt, no less successfully, lavished the country's resources on contests with France and Spain, and won for Britain a high place in Europe and security in her colonial dominions.

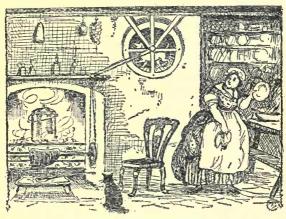
EARLY YEARS OF GEORGE III

It has been well said that, when the great statesman Pitt bore to young Prince George the official news of his grandfather's death, he "presented him with an empire" instead of the little kingdom to which George I was called. The heir to the throne was perhaps conscious of this, for he made it clear that he had no German predilections, but "gloried in the name of Briton." The political jest of the day was that he could not even find Hanover on the map.

However that might be, he was keenly, pre-eminently, interested in Great Britain, and resolved at all points to "be a king" in his relations with his people. This resolve, as it happened, had its inconveniences, for while British ministers had fostered national feeling, and developed national greatness, the methods of government had undergone slow but marked changes. No longer could the sovereign impress his will upon his ministers in details of policy, nor even choose his ministers without due regard to the strength of the party to which they belonged. Ministers, too, had begun to feel themselves responsible first to Parliament, not first to the sovereign, and their chief had become a personage of great authority. For, through his ignorance of the English language, George I had not cared even to be present at Cabinet meetings; the deliberations being presented to him afterwards by Walpole in Latin. George II had followed the custom established by his father, and usually received ministerial communications through his accomplished wife, Queen Caroline. Hence, to be popular, the ideas of the new King as to a monarch's province and power needed to be quite unlike those of the Stuart sovereigns, which he had been taught

to admire, since they had acted entirely on their own initiative.

The story goes that, immediately upon the death of George II, Pitt set off in his coach-and-six to Kew Palace, where Prince George of Wales was living with his mother, and that on his way he met the royal coach bearing the heir-apparent to London, ready and eager to assume his kingly duties. With him came his tutor, Lord Bute, a Scottish nobleman, who had once been



Kitchen, Eighteenth Century

able to do the Prince of Wales some small service and was forthwith raised to the position of Groom of the Bedchamber and personal friend. The Princess of Wales appreciated him as highly, and to him was entrusted much of the education and training of Prince George. The political ideas of Lord Bute were far more akin to those of a Stuart than to those of a parliamentary monarchy; and it seems almost a touch of poetic retribution that the mind of the future King

EARLY YEARS OF GEORGE III

should have been deeply tinged with prejudices and convictions which really belonged to the Jacobite house, through whose exile his own had come to the throne. Hence we may be sure that the new King would not be content to follow in the steps of his two predecessors.

Early in the following year the young monarch married Princess Charlotte, of the little German state of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, a marriage which somewhat imperilled the King's popularity. For the people at large, who welcomed with gladness George III's accession, and admired his princely bearing and accomplishments, expected him to choose a beautiful bride. The young Princess Charlotte could not be so described, and "the people were exasperated." Soon after the marriage came the coronation, and with the recollection of the coronation of a fifth King George still fresh in our memory, with every circumstance of dignity and grandeur, it is interesting to read that a great endeavour was made to have an impressive ceremony. Then, as in the twentieth century, scaffolding and decorations in the streets showed London's desire to share in the happy occasion; and the venerable customs of antiquity were revived in the ceremonial in order to do honour to the successor of England's long line of illustrious kings.

One such old custom was the flinging down in public of the gage of battle by the royal Champion, daring anyone to deny the new King's right to the throne. The mailed glove fell ringingly on the paved floor of Westminster Hall and—disappeared! Excited rumour had it that Prince Charles Edward himself was present and bore it away; but, though romantic Jacobites

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might read a happy augury into the occurrence, no one was dismayed by it as an unlucky omen. So, happily and in high spirits, the young King and his consort began their reign, his Majesty aged twenty-four and his Queen a few years younger. Both were naturally and becomingly charmed with the pleasing possibilities of their new position. King George had spent a secluded and studious youth and had known little of social or public entertainments; the Queen in her quiet German home had known none. Together, in the first year of their reign, their Majesties attended the opera, the theatre, the fashionable gardens at Ranelagh, and the masquerades and dances at the houses of the nobility.

In walking about London in the district lying north and west of the British Museum, it is noticeable how the names of streets and squares recall the great aristocratic families of the eighteenth century. Newcastle, Pelham, Russell, Bedford, Temple, Bentinck, Cavendish all remind us of the growing London of the early years of George III, with the stately modern houses standing in their own grounds, a pleasant drive from Westminster and the royal parks. In one of these, St James's Park, lying west of the palace and joining the grounds of Buckingham House, were the courts and spaces for the favourite game of "Pall-Mall." Hyde Park, still with its brick wall round it, had lately been adorned by Queen Caroline with a winding lake, the Serpentine.

Soon the cares of state took all the time and energy of the King, and the prevailing tone of the Court was quietness, even dullness, while fashionable society pursued its gay round with but little countenance from their Majesties. The costumes of both sexes were still

EARLY YEARS OF GEORGE III

gay and extravagant, the heads burdened with high erections and powdered, enormous hoops, men's lace

collars and hair-ribbons and muffs elaborate and fine; the dinner-hour was moved from four to six o'clock, and the meals were incredibly long and heavy, with large quantities of rich and heady wines.

In order to carry out his ideas as to the personal authority of the sovereign, the King's first step was to remove the principal Whig ministers whose power had grown so greatly during the two preceding reigns, and whose creed and policy had no deference for the monarch apart from Parliament. There was an inkling of this in his Majesty's historic



Women's Wigs, Eighteenth Century

remark in his Speech on his Accession, that he gloried in the name of "Briton." It was felt that this was not only a repudiation of his predecessors' fondness for Hanover, which might be gratifying, but that it was also a recognition of his Scottish friend and favourite, who it was feared had become too closely intimate with the King. The suspicion was justified. Lord Bute had been made a member of the Privy Council at the accession ceremony, and attended all the meetings like the shadow of the King. The opportunity came when Pitt, in his negotiations with France as to conditions of peace, was made aware that Spain was plotting with France against Great Britain, and urged the Cabinet to declare war on Spain. "I submitted my advice to a trembling Council," was his description of the occasion; but with only one minister strongly supporting him, and Bute strongly opposing him, Pitt resigned. Lovers of

the occult pointed out that though the coronation episode of the missing gage might betoken no harm, yet another mysterious incident, which was not talked about, had its fulfilment in this resignation. A large jewel in the royal crown fell out during the crowning; and no less could be declared than that it foreshadowed the fall of the great minister. The King desired to soften the blow as much as possible, and would have showered honours on the statesman to whom the nation owed so much. But Pitt would accept only a pension for himself and the title of Lady Chatham for his wife. No longer as leader, but as one adviser among many, Pitt sat in the Council. Lord Bute was made Secretary of State and First Lord of the Treasury, and was supreme. Then Spain declared war on Great Britain, but fortunately the far-sightedness of Pitt had ensured that our country was prepared, and in the campaign in the Spanish West Indies the success was wholly British.

In the meantime, though Pitt had been removed from the Commons, Newcastle was still leader in the House of Lords, a condition of things which Lord Bute and the King found irksome. So his position was made unbearable, and he was forced to resign, after nearly half-a-century of leadership. Then the King put Bute in his place, and gladly accepted resignations from all the important Whig ministers, replacing them by supporters under obligations for place or gifts. This laid the foundation of the curious state of things which existed in Parliament for many years after: the existence of a Court party as distinct from the Government, known as the "King's Friends." The King and his advisers had carried on the war but languidly, and the next year it was ended by the Peace of Paris



Guy Fawkes Day: Temple Bar (From Hogarth)

(1763). The gains of Great Britain were the restoration of the Isle of Minorca, acknowledged possession of Canada, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, with several West India islands; Florida was ceded by Spain, and in India Britain's position remained unchanged by the giving up of one or two stations seized in the war.

So far the new Government had been most unpopular. Lord Bute was generally detested, first for his nationality, next for his influence with the King and the Princess Dowager, and lastly for his lack of power in dealing with matters of state. A ribald London crowd was ever in attendance to hoot him as his coach appeared in his journeys to and from Westminster; and when the Government Budget was brought in, and received with immense disfavour, the King's favourite completely lost his nerve, and resigned. His place was taken by George Grenville, who was Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader in the Commons, but, unfortunately for the carrying on of parliamentary affairs, not leader of a united body. Partly through jealousy and partly through personal quarrels, the Whigs were broken up into three parties: one headed by Lord Rockingham, another by the Duke of Bedford, leaving only the third to support Grenville. The King had hoped to find him the most manageable of the three, since he had once supported Pitt, but had lately quarrelled with him; and Lord Bute, though holding no office, was still the King's most trusted adviser. This made the monarch nearly as unpopular as his favourite. One way in which the discontent showed itself was in violent criticisms of the King and his ministers; and the most notorious of them was one published by John Wilkes, M.P. for Aylesbury, in his paper, The North Briton.

EARLY YEARS OF GEORGE III

The King greatly resented this and he ordered the immediate prosecution of all connected with the paper: editor, publisher and printers; and Lord Halifax, the Secretary of State, was so ready to carry out the King's command that he went about the task in a quite unconstitutional way. He issued a general warranti.e. a document authorizing the officers to arrest any suspected persons without stating names of offenders or the offences. This mistaken step cost the King dear; for, though Wilkes himself was an unprincipled man, he was able to show that the Government were treating him unjustly, and even illegally; so that soon popular feeling was all on his side. When ordered to be imprisoned in the Tower he insolently asked to occupy a room in which no Scot had ever been imprisoned; and had soon to be released because (1) he was a member of Parliament, and (2) he demanded a writ of habeas corpus as his offence had not been stated on the warrant. Wilkes followed up his victory by bringing an action against the Secretary of State for one thousand pounds damages for wrongful arrest.' Then the King commanded his resignation from the colonelcy of the Buckinghamshire Militia, and induced the House of Commons to expel him from that assembly. He was next challenged by a professional duellist, and was wounded, soon afterwards escaping to France. A few years later he returned, and stood for Middesex in the general election, was returned by a large majority, and once again expelled from the House. By this time everyone had taken sides for or against Wilkes; and his supporters increased when twice more he was elected and not allowed to sit. His unsuccessful rival was declared elected and given his seat, and this

stirred public feeling still more. "Wilkes and Liberty!" became a war-cry, and he himself a popular hero, because he stood out against an arbitrary King and Government.

A writer in a newspaper, The Public Advertiser, who signed himself Junius, angrily attacked the proceedings of the King's ministers and compelled attention from the Government, whilst the "man in the street" admired the resolute member more and more. It became plain that he was not merely a noisy demagogue, but that he was standing up for the rights and liberties of the people, and that it was these, and not evil practices only, against which the Court party had pitted themselves. Meanwhile changes of ministry had taken place: the great Pitt had at length accepted a peerage and become Prime Minister, but sitting in the House of Lords he lost his old popularity and his power of influencing other ministers. So that after a few months he resigned, weary and ill, and was succeeded by Lord Grafton, to whom Junius had addressed his letters, and he, in turn, by Lord North. When Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, was well enough to return to the House of Lords he spoke grave words of warning as to the unconstitutional way in which the Government was treating Wilkes. Also the great orator, Burke, had published a letter condemning the methods; the Lord Mayor and Sheriffs of the City of London had presented petitions against it; and the corporation elected Wilkes an alderman.

All London had walls and spaces defiantly chalked "No. 45," because in that number of his paper Wilkes had written the offending article; the town was illuminated when he was released from prison; he was

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afterwards made a sheriff of the city, and, later, Lord Mayor. Ever since the stormy days of the twelfth century, in the struggle of Stephen and Matilda for the crown, the city of London had jealously preserved its independence of the sovereign; and in the line taken with regard to Wilkes, who stood for everything that the new monarch detested, we have a striking objectlesson in civic affairs. In 1774 Wilkes stood again in the general election, and this time was returned and allowed to take his seat. Thus were the arbitrary will



Cobbler's Stall, 1760

of the King and the weak subservience of the House of Commons overcome by the champion of liberty; and in the long struggle the extravagance and violence of Wilkes during the early stages were dwarfed and pushed out of sight by the illegal and tyrannical measures used to silence him. The strong feeling which these aroused added to the unpopularity of the sovereign whose reign had begun with such promise of attachment and loyalty.

With Lord North as Prime Minister, the King hoped to be able to bend Parliament to his will. The Stuart monarchs had ignored it, George III meant to use it. Those who supported him were liberally rewarded, those who opposed were unable to stand against the united front of the "King's Friends." Lord Chatham declared in a speech in the House of Lords: "The influence of the Crown is become so enormous that some stronger bulwark [than the House of Commons] must be erected for the defence of the constitution." The Whigs should have been the men to resist this power, but through the violence of the contest over Wilkes many had feared to be connected with any movements in favour of liberty. Then there were rivalries and divisions amongst the more important leaders which split their followers into separate camps. Hence for some years it looked as though George III's idea of kingship and power would become firmly established.

In colonial affairs there came a crisis (Chapter VIII) which, at heavy cost, stemmed the tide of absolute authority which monarch and ministers claimed to wield. Very reasonably had Lord North protested that he was not Prime Minister—"his Majesty was his own Prime Minister," and parliamentary government was a machine for carrying out his will. Chatham proposed as a first step in reform, to return again to the usage of triennial parliaments: men who held office for many years might well not be in touch with the people. He also desired that counties should have one more member each, thus counteracting a little the many "borough" members who were merely nominees of the King's ministers and not freely elected representatives of the places for which they sat.

EARLY YEARS OF GEORGE III

In foreign affairs there were difficulties. France and Spain, whose sovereigns of the great Bourbon house held an absolute authority which the British monarch emulated, united to harass the country which had, a few years previously, defeated both. France took the side of the revolting colonies in America, and Spain attacked Gibraltar and Minorca. In the struggle for place and power, King and minister had neglected to maintain a strong navy, and the Continental powers were scornful of British claims, and ready all to unite against her. In 1780 the great northern states-Russia, Sweden and Denmark-agreed in an "Armed Neutrality" to thwart the claim of commanders of British ships to search and seize neutral vessels. To this Holland allied herself also, so that Great Britain stood practically alone; and it seemed that not only her influence in Europe, but also her actual possessions in India and in America, would soon be lost.

The year 1780 was dark and threatening. There was much discontent with the extravagant use of money in rewarding the "King's Friends," and the heavy expenses of the war were a great strain. The Whigs did their duty as an "Opposition" in protesting against the Civil List and demanding economical reform; and the public political meetings, which came into fashion during the Wilkes excitement, were continued to condemn the Government's methods. Burke brought in a Bill to abolish "sinecures," or posts carrying salaries with no duties, and though it was lost it prepared the way for further resistance. A less practical, though more resounding, resolution was carried, "that the influence of the Crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished."

There was but little hope of either political or religious reform at this time. The people at large were not ready for any great measure of responsibility, and this was shown rather strikingly when a Whig statesman in the House of Lords proposed Manhood Suffrage. During the actual debate a London mob beset the House of Commons, clamouring for the repeal of the Act which gave some liberty to Roman Catholics. Led by an eccentric young nobleman, Lord George Gordon, and yelling "No Popery!" they burnt and destroyed the Roman Catholic places of worship. The following vear was one of defeat and failure, and, worn out by the strain of political life, Lord North resigned. King George protested, as well he might: "My heart truly tore in pieces." For though the tide had turned in foreign affairs, it was too late for the Tory ministers to hope to win popular support. In the spring of 1782 Admiral Rodney won a fine victory in the West Indies, entirely breaking up the French fleet under de Grasse; and Howe saved Gibraltar. These tardy victories were the beginning of the undisputed sovereignty of the seas which Great Britain was soon to hold.

Once more Lord Rockingham became Prime Minister, and two notable members of his ministry are to be heard of again as amongst the most prominent men of the latter half of the century. Charles James Fox, son of Richard Fox, afterwards Lord Holland, was Foreign Secretary, and William Pitt, second son of the Earl of Chatham, was soon afterwards made Chancellor of the Exchequer. Richard Fox and Pitt (Earl of Chatham) had been rivals in their early years, and, though their sons were for the moment in the same ministry, their later career was to show them determined

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opponents. Fox was soon discontented with his position, and planned to get greater power by allying

himself with the Prince of Wales, afterwards George IV. Like his grandfather, Prince Frederick, and his great-grandfather, Prince George (George II), this Prince was on bad terms with his father, and had a following in the political world of many of those who were opposed to the King's way of governing, or had missed his patronage. Young Pitt followed in his father's footsteps by working for parliamentary reform; but was unable to get a Bill carried, as there



William Pitt

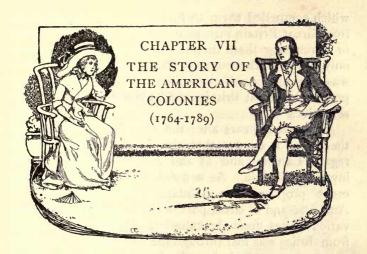
were frequent changes of ministry. In one of these there were admitted Tory statesmen, including Lord North, and they had their hands full with the difficulties of the control of India. Fox brought in two Bills which were intended to place the government of that great country on a firm footing; but his opponents supported the King in his objections, so that they were thrown out. In this matter the King went so far as to communicate privately with some of the peers, stating that anyone who voted for Fox's India Bills would be no friend of his. A clever caricature, which showed Fox as a kind of Oriental tyrant mounted upon an elephant, and unrolling the map of India, suggested that he was aiming at the position of dictator, and turned many from supporting him.

With the dismissal of the Coalition ministry the King turned to a man upon whom he thought he could rely, and made Pitt, at the age of twenty-four, Prime Minister. We shall follow his brilliant career

in another chapter; at the moment everyone was amazed, though some were not unwilling that so young a man should be entrusted with such a position. His rival, Fox, was two years older, perhaps no less able, but certainly less fortunate, and far less high-principled. The two men represented quite different political ideals; Fox strongly Whig, even revolutionary, Pitt as strongly Tory, and yet, as was said later, carrying out Whig principles. He was indeed to prove himself, as Burke said after his maiden speech in Parliament, not "a chip of the old block, but the old block itself."



Lady, about 1783



HE story of Canada has shown how Great Britain succeeded in resisting the attempts of France to wrest from her the dominions she held in America. The story of the American colonies is the record of how this country. through the arbitrary determination of the King and the mismanagement of his ministers, lost the stretch of settlements along the Atlantic seaboard. These colonists, who, from the days of their first arrival, had known the inconveniences of unfriendly neighbours -the French in Canada and the Red Indians inlandwere relieved from one of the annoyances by the conquest of Canada in 1759. In the more peaceful times which followed they were increasing rapidly in numbers, and continually expanding their territories. Their trade flourished in spite of the vexatious restrictions laid upon it by the Home Government,

which compelled them to buy all manufactured goods from Great Britain instead of making them themselves, or purchasing them direct, and to sell their products only to the mother country. Each state of the thirteen was practically self-governing, under a governor appointed by Great Britain, and its house of elected representatives.

About three years after the accession of George III there was a danger that the French would seek to regain Canada, and at the same time the Indians invaded Virginia. As a defence, the British Government proposed to maintain a standing army in America, and to cover part of the expense by imposing various taxes upon the colonies. Much of the revenue from duties was lost through the widespread smuggling that went on; and thus the laws against contraband trading were made stricter, and more rigidly enforced by a system of coasting schooners. A new tax devised by the Prime Minister, Grenville, was that of requiring stamped documents for contracts, leases, agreements and transfers of property. "It is just and necessary," stated the introduction of the Bill, "that a revenue be raised in your Majesty's dominions in America for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting and securing the same."

With this principle most people would agree, but unfortunately the colonists, who were sore from the trading restrictions and chafed afresh under the sterner checks to smuggling, resented the attempt. They were being taxed without their consent; thus the British Government was infringing one of the most valued rights of British subjects, as laid down in Magna Charta. The Opposition in Parliament took their side,

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upon the ground that "Taxation without Representation is tyranny." Representation at Westminster was, of course, impossible with so many miles of land and sea between; so that either the colonists must submit to the tyranny or the proposal must be dropped. They were quite clear as to their position, and while willing to accept the indirect taxation of duties on commodities, like all colonies at the time, they firmly resolved to have no direct taxes laid upon them. At the same time, in their various Parliaments, they agreed

to provide a revenue greater in amount than the Stamp Tax was expected to raise, and sent an ambassador, Benjamin Franklin. to England bearing the offer.

But Grenville and his administration were so assured, like the King himself, of the right and wisdom of their demand, that they would hear nothing of the voluntary contribution. "What I have said, I have said," was the ex-



George III

pression of Grenville's haughty temperament; and it was so little curbed that it jarred upon his Majesty, and he selected another Prime Minister. When Lord Rockingham had just taken office, the news came that the colonies had united together, led by Virginia, to demand the repeal of the tax; and on the arrival of the stamped paper it was at once locked away, by order of the Assemblies, instead of being put into circulation. With some consternation the King's ministers heard of this defiance. Pitt, Earl of Chatham, led the chorus of the Opposition in the Upper House

and Burke and Charles Fox in the Commons. The Earl, ill and weary, showed some of his old fire as he thundered out: "America is obstinate! America is in rebellion! Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted! Three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest."

So, in spite of the King, and the "King's Friends," the ministry repealed the tax (1766), but ungraciously. Governments, like individuals, sometimes spoil a concession by the manner in which it is granted, and it was so in this case. Much emphasis was laid upon the right of the British Parliament to impose taxes upon, and make laws for, British colonies, though this particular tax should not be enforced. Hence the loyal thanks with which the withdrawal was received had a note of triumph in them, due to successful defiance; and a watchful readiness to take offence, with a spirit of resistance instead of submission, marked the attitude of the colonists toward the mother country.

Occasions soon came. Two chief causes of provocation were the quartering of British troops on various districts, and the vigilance of the excise schooners in putting down smuggling. Conflicts took place between townsmen and redcoats; and the commander of a British schooner on coast duty, having required that local trading vessels should salute his flag, was the means of setting in action many smouldering resentments. A little colonial vessel passed without dipping her flag, and the schooner promptly fired on her, as a lesson in better manners, and gave chase to the saucy offender. She, however, merrily decoyed

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her pursuer upon the shoals, and, whilst aground, the vessel was plundered by a body of responsible citizens disguised as Red Indians, and burnt. Thus the burning of the *Gaspee* forms a landmark in the story of the quarrel between Great Britain and her colonies (1773).

The Government, under Lord North, persisted in looking upon the colonies as unruly boys needing chastisement, instead of as grown-up sons assuming manhood's responsibilities and independence. To the King, indeed, they were simply "rebels." He openly regretted the repeal of the Stamp Act. "All men feel that the fatal compliance of 1766 has increased the pretensions of the Americans to absolute independence." For a policy of irritation had been pursued ever since. The Assembly of New York State was suspended on account of quarrels between colonists and the military; fresh import duties were laid upon all goods entering American ports; Massachusetts lost its parliament on account of the governor's ill report of its proceedings; and troops were sent to occupy Boston and frighten the colony into submission. Then, when it became evident that the colonists would never submit to dictation from home, the Government announced the dropping of all the new taxes except one, that on tea. We must remember that the East India Company had the monopoly of the tea trade, and through the troubles in India was in need of funds to pay its tribute to the Government. So several shiploads of tea were despatched to America, always one of the best markets, and the tax of threepence per lb. enforced. But when the vessels arrived in Boston harbour it was to find that, not only had colonial housewives forsworn tea, but that their fathers, husbands and brothers were

assembled in full force to prevent unloading. Soon they boarded the ships and threw the chests into the sea!

The news of the "Boston Tea-Party," as, with grim irony, it was called, spread far and wide. At home, when the House of Commons debated the matter, Burke had poured scorn upon the petty motives which led the Government to retain the tax. "Whereas it is expedient that a revenue be raised in your Majesty's dominions in America," he scoffingly quoted from the preamble to the Bill, "and five of the six taxes repealed, why retain the sixth? Could it provide a revenue? By the operation of feeble counsels, so paltry a sum as threepence in the eyes of a financier, so insignificant an article as tea in the eyes of a philosopher, have shaken the pillars of a commercial empire that circled the whole globe."

It was, however, too late for either eloquence or reasoning to persuade the Government to act largely and generously; and the last daring act of defiance alienated even Chatham from the men who were fighting for a principle. Nearly everyone at home now agreed that such a spirit must be crushed; and with resolute counsels and vigilant measures such a course might have been possible. Not for a ministry such as Lord North's could it ever have been; for the instruments of compulsion were rusty and unprepared, and the lack of principle in statesmanship had made Great Britain of little importance in Europe. But a beginning was made (1774).

In a heated Parliament, where hardly any voice of temperate counsels could be heard, four measures of punishment were passed: (1) the closing of Boston

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harbour; (2) the taking away of the Charter of Massachusetts; (3) the issuing of an order that political offenders in America should, if the governors deemed it necessary, be sent to England for trial; (4) the military occupation of Massachusetts by British troops. "Four regiments will be enough to bring them to their senses," was the sanguine estimate. The King rejoiced at the opportunity of putting his foot down: "If we take the resolute part," he said, "they will be very meek. They must either triumph or submit. The die is cast." It was. The colonies rallied round Massachusetts, once ringleader, now victim; called out the militia; and protested "no surrender." Even wealthy and aristocratic Virginia was unvielding on the point, though reluctant to go to extremes. The Government at home heard with incredulous dismay of the Declaration of Right from the Congress of Assemblies, and of the open opposition to the newly appointed military governor of Massachusetts. General Gage. Once more Chatham, the farseeing statesman, came to the fore (1775). He argued and pleaded with his old eloquence and force as he brought in his Bill for the reconstitution of the relations between mother country and colonies. It proposed (1) the repeal of all the late Acts so much resented; (2) the restoration of the colonial charters; (3) the giving up of the claim to tax; (4) the recall of the British troops. "It is not cancelling a piece of parchment," he urged, "that will win back America. You must respect her fears and her resentments." His proposals were contemptuously rejected, and the Government pressed on with its policy of "crushing" the rebellion.

The States were not idle. They voted an army for

general defence, and put at its head George Washington, a Virginian gentleman, who had seen service under Braddock and been present at his unsuccessful attack on Fort Duquesne. Volunteers were forthcoming for any arduous duty; truly all hearts were afire. One of the many deeds of courage and endurance is commemorated in Longfellow's "Ride of Paul Revere." A young stationer carried the news of a plan of General Gage to raid the district for arms:

"He said to his friend, 'If the British march
By land or sea from the town to-night,
Hang a lantern aloft in the belfry-arch
Of the North Church tower, as a signal light—
One if by land, and two if by sea;
And I on the opposite shore will be,
Ready to ride and spread the alarm
Through every Middlesex village and farm,
For the country-folk to be up and to arm.'"

How the signal was given, and how,

"He has left the village and mounted the steep,"

"It was twelve by the village clock
When he crossed the bridge into Medford town,"

"It was one by the village clock
When he galloped into Lexington,"

"It was two by the village clock
When he came to the bridge in Concord town,"

So that, when the troops fired,

"The farmers gave them ball for ball
From behind each fence and farmyard wall,
Chasing the redcoats down the lane. . . ."

And at Concord Bridge the British regiments were in



The Ride of Paul Revere

full retreat. A reinforcement under Lord Percy, which set out in scornful glee with the bands playing "Yankee Doodle," just arrested the stampede, but marched back with no triumphant music (1775).

The next contest was between some few hundreds of the rebel colonists and Lord Howe's splendid regiments of 4000 trained and disciplined soldiers at Bunker's Hill, outside the town of Boston. The band of determined men of Massachusetts, undrilled, and armed with old-fashioned muskets and farm implements, occupied the hill, and it was for the British troops to ascend and dislodge them. But "heart gives aim," and the crowd of defenders shot so straight that it was a broken and dishevelled regiment which gained the height when the powder was giving out. Many redcoats had fallen, and but few colonists, when the position was taken; so that the British victory left the vanquished hardly worse off, while it cost the conquerors dear.

But, splendid and invaluable as are personal valour and willing service, the task of George Washington, commander of the American army, was no easy one. Without training and discipline, hardy townsmen and resolute farmers found it hard to act in concert, and to meet the attacks of drilled and ordered troops accustomed to fight together. But he was equal to the task. All the strong virtues of the military leader were combined in this Virginian gentleman, with the calm forethought and patience of the statesman. The war dragged on, and volunteers were apt to cool down; food and clothes were scarce; weapons few, and the large plans which inspired the leader were all unknown to the rank and file, so that much of the effort and waiting seemed

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purposeless and futile. Of all curious sieges that of Boston, "occupied by British troops," and invested by the "ragged army" of Washington's conscripts, is amongst the strangest. For nearly a year "Scarecrow Washington," as the British officers called him, sat down with his tattered forces around Boston. Then—himself hard pushed but confident in the ignorance of his opponents—he offered the garrison the choice of bombardment or evacuation. So the representatives of King George marched out and made for New York, where reinforcements and many Hessian troops awaited them.

By this time the southern colonies, too, had thrown off all allegiance to Great Britain and expelled their governors. On 4th July 1776 the representatives of the various states, in congress, issued the famous Declaration of Independence: "We, the representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that the United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States."

France made haste to recognize the United States, thus avenging herself somewhat upon Great Britain for past defeats, and soon Holland and Spain did the same. The ministers were ready to grant all that the colonies asked; only the King remained firm. Pitt, Earl of Chatham, made a last effort, ill as he was, and was carried to the House of Lords to speak against the surrender of the colonies. Remembering his greeting of George III on his accession we cannot wonder at the bitter disappointment felt by the aged statesman: "His Majesty succeeded to an Empire as great in

extent as its reputation was unsullied. Seventeen years ago this people were the terror of the world." And now all civilized Europe beheld them unable to guide and control their own colonies, derided by European states and without weight or influence, as it seemed, anywhere.

A weary four years of fighting succeeded the Declaration of Independence. Often Washington was cast down and all but despairing. Not only great odds were against him in open foes, but there was also treachery amongst his subordinates. A personal friend, Benedict Arnold, was detected in betraying plans to an English officer, Major André, who was captured and executed as a spy. On the other hand Washington was well served by many a gallant gentleman from various European states who, like Lord Byron for Greece, voluntarily took arms in aid of men "fighting to be free." Of such were Lafayette and the Polish Kosciusko.

When in 1781 a British army, under Lord Cornwallis, surrendered at York Town, the British Government saw that they were waging a fruitless strife. "It is all over," cried Lord North, when the news reached him; and indeed the moral effect of the defeat was disastrous enough. Not only were the Continental countries rejoicing in Britain's defeat and humiliation, but also, at the moment, Ireland, as ever ill content, seized the opportunity to demand independence. Fortunately the victory of Admiral Rodney over Spain in the West Indies turned the tide. But, though Great Britain soon made good her position as a European nation, her American colonies, with the exception of Canada, were irretrievably lost. To the genius and character of

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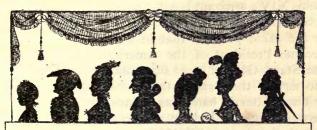
George Washington this reversal was chiefly due. For not all the strong determination of the colonists could have sufficed in such a struggle without able leadership, or without the one master mind to unite and control the burning motives and ardent efforts of the many. From the point of view of the colonists the story of the American War of Independence is an epic which, with several minor heroes, centres around the commanding, generous personality of Washington.

In 1789 he was made the first President of the American Republic; having declined the honour, which the States pressed upon him, of becoming King of the New Commonwealth. For eight years he guided the counsels of the Senate, and then once more returned to the quiet life of the Virginian country gentleman, from which the events of the Boston Tea-Party had so rudely torn him fifteen years before. To the last King George in England looked upon George Washington as a successful rebel whose name must not be mentioned. But most people of his own day and since thought that he richly deserved the tribute paid him by his comrade and subaltern of being "First in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." Bitter and intolerable as the loss of the American colonies seemed to be to the Earl of Chatham and his sympathizers, the course of years has served to show that both mother country and rebellious sons have been gainers, rather than losers, through it. Perhaps the hushed-up accident of the jewel falling from the royal crown was an omen of this; but the coronation proceeded and the crown remained. Burke's impassioned plea for justice for America, which at the time fell upon deaf ears, was a temperate forecast of the great future

before it. "Whatever England has been growing to by a progressive increase of improvement, brought in by varieties of people, by a succession of civilizing conquests and civilizing settlements, in a series of seventeen hundred years, you shall see as much added to her by America in the course of a single life." The principle which he upheld in dealing with the American colonies has by slow degrees been accepted by British statesmen: "Magnanimity in politics is not seldom the truest wisdom, and a great empire and little minds go ill together."



Chelsea Porcelain, Cane Handle,



CHAP. VIII—ENGLISH STATESMEN (PITT, FOX AND BURKE) AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789-1794)

HE successful stand for freedom made by the American colonies had far-reaching effects. It gave inspiration and impetus to similar movements in many countries, and notably in France. In that land, whose people were ever full of new ideas, thinkers and philosophers had long been praising ideals of liberty amid a practical and crushing feudalism. The glory of France, as represented in her sovereign and her conquering armies, rested upon a foundation of misery and discontent which had been steadily increasing with her greatness. When the gentlemen-adventurers who had fought for the colonies against Great Britain returned home they carried details of practical experience of liberty enjoyed by the Americans which fully bore out the theories of the philosophers. The gallant young hero Lafayette led the party of reform which demanded the assembling of the States-General, or National Parlia-

ment which had hardly met for two hundred years. Louis XIV's arrogant boast, "L'état, c'est moi," had been accepted in spirit ever since its utterance, and when, in the same year as that in which Washington first became President of the American Republic (1789), the States-General were summoned, no one living had memory of the form of the proceedings.

The matter in hand was finance, the country having become impoverished by a succession of wars, unjust taxation, and general thriftlessness amongst the well-to-do. The representatives of the Three Estates, Church, Nobility and People, at first assembled together; but the Commons, bent upon widespread reforms, soon broke away and constituted themselves into a "National Assembly." Thus at one stroke was severed the long line of precedent and custom, and a new Constitution was framed. The French populace, once aroused, made war upon any institution or body belonging to the rejected past, and the most striking example of their fierce zeal was the destruction of the great state prison of Paris, the Bastille.

All Europe watched with interest the development of events; not least Great Britain, at whose conduct of revolutions and advance in freedom other states looked wonderingly. The imaginations of poets and thinkers were stirred with the anticipation of better things, the abolition of tyranny and the progress of enlightened self-government. Wordsworth and Shelley reflect in their writings at this time the ardent spirit of hope and faith aroused by the awakening of France. British statesmen applauded; Charles James Fox threw himself heartily into the admiring discussion led by the orator Sheridan. Pitt, as the responsible

PITT FOX AND BURKE

minister, held himself aloof from praise or blame of France setting her house in order. One voice alone in Great Britain spoke warningly, menacingly, of the development of affairs across the Channel. That voice was Burke's.

Adopting the innocent fiction of a letter to a very young gentleman at Paris, Burke published his Reflections on the Revolution in France, and within a few months eleven editions had appeared of the "Letters." In it the author gives a clear historical sketch of the basis and growth of British liberty, and draws disheartening conclusions from the violent methods of attaining similar ends in France. Never were forebodings more exactly realized, though it is often said that it was largely the effect of Burke's pamphlet that they were so sadly justified. The dismal picture of what must happen is drawn with relentless hand. "Laws overturned, tribunals subverted; industry without

vigour; commerce expiring; the revenue unpaid, yet the people impoverished; . . everything, human and divine, sacrificed to the idol of public credit, and national

bankruptcy the consequence."

What especially stirred Burke, the lover of justice, to such indignation was the forming in England of various clubs and societies in sympathy with the revolutionary movement in France. Hence he quotes everything in history and state-



Edmund Burke

craft which can show the peril of the new ideas. His close arguments are dotted with striking little assertions which arrest attention and cling to the memory: "A spirit of innovation is gener-

ally the result of a selfish temper and confined views." "There is no qualification for government but virtue and wisdom." "It is said that twenty-four millions ought to prevail over two hundred thousand: true—if the constitution of a kingdom be a problem of arithmetic." His whole argument and outlook were based upon the aristocratic theory which would withhold authority and government from the body of the people, and govern them for their good. Hence it was very consoling reading to King George III, and other monarchs like-minded with him, and has been a mine of political counsels against democratic progress ever since.

To Fox the fall of the Bastille was "the greatest event that ever happened in the world; and how much the best!" To Burke it was a symbol of a destroying influence which could work nothing but evil. The two statesmen, friends for years, parted asunder on this question, and indeed Burke shut out from his intimacy anyone who showed sympathy for the revolutionary movement. The Whig party in Parliament was split in two, one following Fox, the other supporting Burke. The latter, in his "Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs," completely severed his connexion with his former party, and went over to the Tories under Pitt. The dissensions amongst members of Parliament only reflected the strong differences of opinion in all the ranks of thinking people. Two "Answers" or "Replies" to Burke's reflections expressed the antagonism felt by those who sympathized with the Revolution: one of them, The Rights of Man, by Thomas Paine, lived to become a classic in democratic arguments.

Soon it became plain that vengeance, rather than

PITT FOX AND BURKE

reform, was the animating spirit in France, and that the thinkers and theorists could no longer control the savage activity of the practical reformers. It is sad to read of, and sad to think about; but no one can be surprised that centuries of oppression should result in vindictive retaliation when the opportunity came.

Three principal stages mark the progress of those few crowded terrible months, quoted so readily by the French, even to-day, by the dates of the outstanding events: (1) the summer of 1791 with the National Assembly making a new Constitution; (2) the attack on the Tuileries and the prisons, early in September; (3) the proclamation of the Republic, 21st September.

Numbers of French nobles had left the country for England and Germany, and it was believed that Prussia

and her allies would attack France and subdue the new Republic. Meanwhile the strongest party in the National Assembly desired war, and in their enthusiasm for rebellion they counted on the fact that peoples, where a chance was given, would rise and fight against their kings instead of for them. "Let us tell Europe," exclaimed a speaker in the Assembly, "that if cabinets engage kings in a war against peoples, we will engage peoples in



Bust of Fox

a war against kings." And the Convention offered an army to any people eager to be free, declaring war at once on Holland. The British minister, Pitt, was resolutely determined to maintain peace, and refused to enter upon war even when the English ambassador was ordered to leave Paris. Burke and his supporters

hoped that Great Britain would unite with Austria and Prussia, and together attack France. But those two kingdoms were busily engaged in the "partition" of Poland, and Pitt was bent on avoiding war as long as possible. So that only when, in January 1793, the French Convention beheaded the King (Louis XVI). and peace could no longer be maintained, Great Britain joined Austria and Prussia in their alliance against France. Never had a kingdom more exacting and gruesome work on hand. For, whilst endeavouring to hold her own against hostile foes, France was busy with a "Committee of Public Safety," to assist the Government in putting to death all aristocrats, all sympathizers with the old order, all questioners of the new, and indeed anyone who fell under the suspicious scrutiny of the tyrannical leaders. In October of the same year the Queen was sent to the guillotine, and then there set in a veritable "Reign of Terror." Leaders succeeded leaders, to be themselves deposed and killed, and all restraint and all purpose were forgotten in the practice of cruelty and murder. "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," was the mocking watchword of these excesses.

A wondering Europe beheld high-born men and stately women, unused to contradiction even, sent in dozens through the public streets to the scaffold, after weeks of anxious waiting in crowded prisons. These pampered, heedless, pleasure-loving aristocrats had perhaps not known how worthily to live, but at least they knew how to die; unfaltering, courtly, self-controlled they went to death, whilst a raging populace shouted insults upon them. The spectacle was an object-lesson not lost upon governments and responsible statesmen. To combat the spread of the

PITT FOX AND BURKE

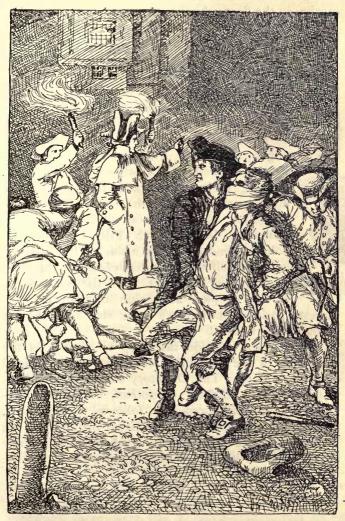
revolutionary spirit, an Act of Parliament was passed hurriedly, whereby foreigners might be summarily deported; and the clubs and societies condemned by Burke two years before were aimed at in another Act for repressing Treasonable Correspondence. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, thus making possible imprisonment without trial, and gatherings of more than fifty people might be held only after permission granted by a magistrate. The Treasonable Practices Act placed all public meetings under inspection, and made any "writing, speaking, printing or preaching" against the Government, or any State institution, a high misdemeanour. The general alarm threw back political and social reform, and, as some of these repressive measures were not repealed until well into the reign of George IV, its effects were felt long after any need for them had passed away.

A Bill for Parliamentary Reform, introduced in 1793, was rejected by a much larger majority than one of similar import eight years earlier. Indeed in the panic all principles of freedom were forgotten. The split in the Whig party which, on the whole, stood for progress, had resulted in all the followers of Burke supporting Pitt. This statesman declared, when confronted with the Reform Bill, that it was "no time for dangerous experiments"; and in 1794 there was a Coalition ministry of Tories and "Old Whigs." The small Opposition party was led by Fox, who remained true to his convictions; and, though shocked by the development in France, he persistently upheld the theory that reforms and the extension of political privileges were the means and way of peace.

Fox resembled Shelley in his passion for liberty.

The poet worked out his convictions in fervid appeal and stirring claims which live still in his poetry; the statesman developed his in upholding, against overwhelming forces, the principles which were to win a slow triumph in the next century. Many men of their time, though equally convinced of the justice of their claims, felt that there is a time to strive for freedom and a time to submit in silence. To Fox, as to Shelley, all seasons were for such striving. "Liberty is order, liberty is strength," was the creed of both, and to cure disorder and enfeebled wills they prescribed freedom, and more freedom. But such ideas were felt to be dangerous in the extreme in those troublous times, and Fox became the most unpopular man in England.

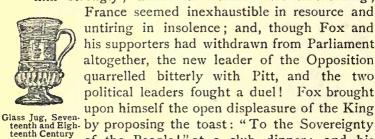
In the stand made by Europe against the turbulent challenge of France, Great Britain was responsible for the sea power. Fortunately her navy, though manned largely from prisons and the lowest class of town populations, was in a better state of preparedness and discipline than the army, so that, though Admiral Howe was defeated at Toulon in December, and for six months the British fleet only held its own, Howe on the 1st of June won an important victory off Ushant which greatly heartened the allies. Then, the next year, three of the powers fell away from the coalition of states—Spain, Tuscany and Prussia—and Holland yielded to France; soon Portugal made peace with her and Austria came to terms which prevented her giving any real support to the British army. Then came a black year; there was discontent at home through heavy taxation and high prices; resentment at the prolonged and ineffectual war, and soon a serious



Impressing Men for the Navy

mutiny in the fleet, whose losses had been made good by "pressed" men from the seaports. So severe had been the drain on the wealth of the country that the Bank of England suspended gold payments, and thus began the "legal tender" of bank-notes as equivalent to cash, and not merely promises to pay cash.

Through it all Pitt preserved a calm and resolute demeanour, although the anxiety and toil were wearing him out. Few members of the Cabinet supported him strongly; affairs in Ireland were threatening;



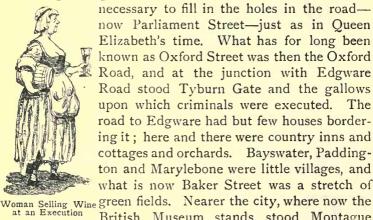
of the People!" at a club dinner; and his Majesty had the statesman's name struck off the list of the Privy Council.

The arrogant position taken up by France in the early days of the Revolution was by no means yielded as time went on. The Directory succeeded the Convention, and a military despotism, under the aweinspiring Napoleon Buonaparte, followed the Directory, His clear purpose was to isolate Great Britain from the European states and then to crush her. The story of the failure of his design belongs to another chapter.



HE traveller of to-day, who is impatient with a slow train, or at having to wait for the next motor omnibus, little realizes the difficulty under which all journeys were undertaken during the eighteenth century. The "perils by land and water" were many and serious. In the first place, even the main roads were not well made. Little was known as to the best way of draining the under surface or making the upper one hard and sound. In towns the "paving" consisted in laying great rough stones more or less evenly; and the road was occasionally levelled by the deeper ruts and holes being filled with any material that came handy. What we now call the gutter was then quite a ditch; in the better streets a line of posts separated the footway from the road. We read that it was one of the nervous tricks of the great Dr Johnson to touch each one of the posts as he walked deep in thought. For crossings there were low stepping-stones, just raised

above the surrounding mud. As late as 1750, when King George II went to the House of Lords, it was



British Museum stands, stood Montague House, surrounded by its garden and a park. Another great mansion in its own grounds was Bedford House, and farms and fields lay between it and Tottenham Court. St Pancras Church had no houses near it, and St-Giles-in-the-Fields was literally as its name describes.

Between Holborn and the Strand stood the Fleet Prison, and the unsightly Fleet Ditch drained the northern part of London into the Thames. So late as the time of the accession of George III it was wide enough for barges to go a little way up it. In the Strand stood the old Bar at the Temple Inns of Court, marking the south-western boundary of the city of London; and during our period there were exposed upon the high pinnacles of the Bar the heads of the leaders of the Jacobite risings of 1715 and 1745. The best-paved thoroughfare in London was Pall Mall, probably in the interests of the ball game from which

TOWN AND COUNTRY

it takes its name. Piccadilly had shops scattered along its north side, chiefly those of sculptors and masons. The fashionable Park Lane of to-day was then Tyburn Lane, and many a sorry procession and shouting mob went along it to the gallows at the end.



A Fleet Marriage Party

Knightsbridge was a small village, and had an evil name as the haunt of highwaymen.

The only bridges across the Thames were London Bridge and Westminster Bridge; the former still had houses on either side late in the reign of George III. A writer of the time describes the danger of a footpassenger attempting to cross London Bridge, so crowded was it with traffic. The river was the pleasantest highway, and by means of ferry boats the perils of the bridges could be avoided. The great roads out of the capital were dangerous, not only on account of their roughness and irregularities, but also

because they were infested with robbers, described politely as highwaymen. The great waste commons and heaths which surrounded outer London had to be crossed, and as the road was generally full of quagmires and obstacles at those places, they were the favourite lurking spots of the "gentlemen of the



1slington, 1760

road." Leaving London by the south-east, along the Old Kent Road there was Blackheath to be crossed; going north-east there was Epping Forest; north there lay Finchley Common; north-west the Highgate Woods; west, Hounslow Heath on the Great Bath Road, after passing "the pleasant delicate country" that lay between Acton and Ealing; and the Uxbridge Road and Hammersmith Road were no more fortunate.

The usual mode of travel was on horseback or by

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waggon, but our period saw the introduction of speedier travel by means of "flying coaches." These would travel as much as sixty miles in a day, but, as the recorder observed, "they do not go to all places." The average stage coach probably covered about five miles an hour, and anything faster was looked upon with as much surprise and awe as the railways in later times or airships to-day. For forty years coaches ran only by daylight, but at length made their journeys also on moonlight nights, and finally undertook to go in the dark if necessary. Six, and sometimes eight,



The Exchange, Cornhill and Lombard Street, 1760

horses were used, one of each pair except the wheelers being ridden by a postilion. The coach was a heavy, cumbrous, leather-covered erection, with broad red wheels, and a huge, swaying, wickerwork "basket" at the back, in which rode poor travellers and servants.

For the first fifty years of the century a stage coach left London on Fridays for Liverpool, arriving there on Monday evenings, but no other place had such a regular service. Stage waggons also ran between London and Liverpool, and were two days on the

journey; and in 1752 the important west country city of Exeter had a fast coach, which left London every Monday morning, reaching Exeter at noon on Thursday. On account of the Continental travel in which the rich indulged, the Old Dover Road out of London was well frequented with travellers; and when the new-fangled "flying machines," as the coaches were called, supplemented the private vehicles of the Government messengers and the aristocracy, they were the best-equipped and fastest of any line. Six horses, changed frequently, as also the coachman, accomplished the eighty-four miles in a day.

The mails were carried on horseback, and were robbed as often as were private persons, such announcements as the following appearing at intervals:—"There were no Western letters yesterday, the Mail being robbed between 11 and 12 o'clock at night between Crewkerne and Sherborne by one footpad who carried off the bags belonging to all the towns between Land's End and Yeovil." Not that there was communication by post between most provincial towns: letters could be sent from Exeter to London or York to London, but not from Exeter to York. A Bath horse-owner, early in the century, obtained permission from Government to establish some "posts" between provincial towns, much as in our own day private companies own railways and establish telephones.

A great advance was made during Pitt's administration of 1784. In that year an energetic theatre manager laid before the reforming minister a plan—which was presently adopted—that coaches with armed coachmen and guards should carry the mails instead of sending them on horseback. There are still, in a

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few country districts in Devonshire, Cornwall and Cumberland, "Royal Mail" coaches on the roads, though most of the carrying is either done by the railways, where these have penetrated, or by the Post Office Motor Service.

Mention has been made of the Dover Road, which was one of the best in England at that time. Although travelling was a matter of difficulty and danger it did

not deter people from facing the risks, especially in going abroad. All who aspired to be thought cultivated or fashionable went to Italy or France, and the crossing of the Channel in the small sailing "packets" of those days was no slight ordeal. There were but few regular sailings, so that travellers who were not wealthy enough to charter a boat for themselves waited at the port until one should be sailing, just as St Paul waited at the Mediterranean ports seventeen hundred years before. Neither here nor on the French coast were there convenient landing-stages, so



Women of Quality, about 1783

that often passengers had to be carried ashore on the sailors' backs. By no means must it be supposed that it was necessary to go abroad in order to enjoy novelty or society. Many places in England, which are now perhaps suburbs of the capital or quiet towns, were fashionable resorts. Brighthelmstone, a fishing village in Sussex, was just coming into favour when George III came to the throne. His Majesty

preferred Weymouth, so that it was left for the Prince of Wales, afterward George IV, who always differed from his father, to make Brighthelmstone famous and transform it to Brighton. There the Prince built a pavilion in the gaudy Eastern style, and a great domed stable, whose architecture was often imitated in the future town.

But a taste for the sea was not yet very fully developed; like moorland and mountain scenery, it awed without pleasing the eighteenth-century mind. In one of Miss Fanny Burney's letters is a description of one of the visits of the Court to Weymouth soon after the King's recovery from his grave illness. She writes: "Gloucester House, intended for a mere hunting-seat, was built by Charles II and seems quite unimproved and unrepaired since its first foundation. It is the King's, but lent to the Duke of Gloucester. It is a straggling inconvenient old house but delightfully situated, in a village, looking indeed at present like a populous town from the amazing concourse of people that have crowded into it. The bowmen and archers and buglemen are to attend the King, while he stays here, in all his rides. . . . During the King's dinner, which was in a parlour looking into the garden, he permitted the people to come to the window, and their delight and rapture at seeing their monarch at table. with the evident hungry feeling it occasioned, made a contrast of admiration and deprivation truly comic. They crowded, however, so excessively that this can be permitted them no more. They broke down all the paling and much of the hedges, and some of the windows, and all by eagerness and multitude, for they were perfectly civil and well-behaved. . . . The King

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bathes, and with great success; a machine follows the royal one into the sea filled with fiddlers who play 'God save the King' as his Majesty takes his plunge."

Inland rather than seaside watering-places were the favourite resorts of fashionable people, where they combined "drinking the waters" for the cure of ailments with a good deal of amusement and frivolity. Near London there were Hampstead Wells, Bagnigge Wells, Sadler's Wells, and Kilburn; and, farther afield, Epsom (whose mineral salts are still famous), with "Ye Well" preserved in the name of the next village, Ewell; Tonbridge, Malvern, Buxton and, most famous of all, Bath.

This ancient city, which claims an antiquity reaching to pre-Roman times, proclaims its almost unique possession in its name. Its hot springs were of repute in Queen Elizabeth's time; but it was the visit of Queen Anne which began its long and prosperous history as a fashionable watering-place. Gradually handsome, substantial houses were built, assembly rooms for dancing and evening entertainments, a new pump-room over the medicinal spring, and a stately guild hall. William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, was M.P. for Bath; but the peculiar glory and good fortune of the city are attributed to quite another name. An unknown gentleman, of no particular standing, named Richard Nash, but fashionably dressed and of distinguished manners, after a prolonged visit to the centre of gaiety, became the adviser and, soon, the controller of all arrangements. His grasp and understanding of how to make a place attractive to visitors showed him at least a century in advance of his time; and his comprehensive reforms included such

large matters as paving, draining and lighting the streets, and such small details as the abolition of swords as part of full dress and the removal of riding boots and spurs in the ballroom.

The attractions and repute of Bath grew so rapidly under Nash's management that he became quite an autocrat, and was known indifferently as "King" Nash and "Beau" Nash, the one for his minute governance



Chelsea Porcelain, Cane Handle (Head of Peg Woffington), 1750-1784

and the other for his fastidious and extravagant attire. Whilst permitting card play he insisted on its being carried on in public and openly; dances were to stop punctually at eleven, and even the request of a royal princess failed to induce him to permit

"one dance more." A pleasing feature introduced by Beau Nash was the greeting of each stage coach of visitors with a peal from the bells of the famous abbey. Serenaders, or "waits," performed in front of the wealthy houses, and the whole town gave itself up to pleasure and devising pleasure. The three great functions of a fashionable visitor's day were the "drinking of the waters" in a studied negligence of dress, attending the abbey services in fine attire, and gaming at the tables. For energetic people there were horse-riding and walks in the meadows beside the Avon. Frequent dances and masquerades varied the evening's diversions, and over all the gay functions Beau Nash reigned supreme. When, in 1745, public gaming was made illegal, a new card game was invented which Nash popularized; but the mismanagement of the tables by his subordinates led to his prosecution, and in a few

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months he fell from his privileged position into obscurity.

But the importance of these places, visited and sought after for the sake of health and recreation, becomes dwarfed during our period in the rise of busy manufacturing and commercial towns. The transference of the iron-smelting industry from the sometime forest region of Sussex and Hampshire to the district of the midland and northern coalfields, and the invention of machinery and the use of steam power, led to a complete change in the population. Soon the woollen and worsted trades moved from the large villages of East Anglia to Lancashire and Yorkshire. Similarly with the silk and linen manufacture; and the raw cotton, brought in shiploads to Liverpool, was worked up into calicoes at Leeds and Manchester.

So that during the eighteenth century these places grew from large straggling villages into great unsightly towns, increasing so quickly that streets of hastily built houses, badly constructed and with insufficient light and air, laid the foundations of the miserable "slums" of modern times. It is recorded of Manchester that by the middle of the century there was a stand for hackney carriages in one of the principal squares. These were the forerunners of the "cabs" of the nineteenth century, which indeed were then, and are still, officially described as "hackney carriages." Birmingham was less advanced. To those who know that city to-day it is difficult to realize that in the early years of the eighteenth century it had not a single bookshop of its own. Samuel Johnson's father, who was a bookseller in the cathedral city of Lichfield. used to hold a stall at the Birmingham weekly market

K

to supply the few literary needs of the towns-

people.

In the west of England the most important towns were those of the cloth industry and the ports whence it was shipped abroad. Not only Bristol but also Barnstaple had a large trade; whilst Devizes, Frome, Honiton and Taunton were filled with busy looms. Exeter serge market was a famous gathering-place for merchants from all parts. At Leicester the stocking-making, for which it has long been famous, had already



Watchmen

begun, and at Richmond in Yorkshire there was another centre for the coarse yarn hosiery worn by merchants and country gentlemen. In the north, Leeds was the great wool and woollen goods market, and gradually almost all the trade of Norwich and the eastern counties migrated thither.

Then, as now, Kent was considered to be the "Gar-

den of England," and Sussex was noted for its large and prosperous villages. The Downs, however, and the uplands of Hampshire and Dorset were shunned as wild and perilous; writers who were adventurous enough to explore some of the softly rolling "Beacons" of the South Downs spoke with horror of their "precipitous sides" and "the savage loneliness" of the surroundings. Yet travelling was becoming fashionable. In 1779 the first Guide Book to the Lake District appeared; this was thirty years before Words-

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worth wrote his Description of the Scenery of the Lakes. But most people stayed very much in the same place and went about but little. In country places few knew anything beyond their own neighbourhood; London was popularly supposed to be "paved with gold," and, except on the south-east coast, any place a few miles distant was deemed "furrin parts."

The most noticeable feature about the dress of the period was the well-marked distinction of class and position shown in it. The fashionable gentleman went gaudily attired; the merchant wore sober colours; workers in various trades were clad in an almost uniform garb of substantial make, and farmers and country labourers in the long tunic known as the "smock," now almost unknown in England. Women's dress, except in the fashionable world, was severely plain, but the garments were carefully treasured, the best kept for special occasions and often bequeathed as heirlooms. The dress of children was usually a miniature copy of that of their elders; little boys wearing knee-breeches, gay long-tailed coats with large pocket-flaps, and cocked hats. Silk stockings and silver buckles on the shoes, with lace collars and cuffs were also reproductions of the attire of their fathers. Girls, little and big, had high-waisted frocks, elaborately trimmed and very tight-fitting, with low neck and short sleeves. For outdoor wear the children of the rich had a heavy garment known as a pelisse and a close hood of rich velvet or satin.

A fashion which seems strange enough now was that of wearing wigs. A gentleman was not in full dress unless his own hair was concealed by a wig, and these were of great variety, intended to suit every

occasion. Even boys at school wore wigs. They were about the costliest items in the wardrobe of a man of



Men's Wigs, Eighteenth Century

fashion, especially as he was as liable to be robbed of his wig as, in later days, of his watch. During the reign of George III wigs became less indispensable, and the revolutionary ideas born of sympathy with the ideas of the French reformers led to their being further discontinued. For many years, however, they were worn by high ecclesiastics, judges, magistrates, civic officials and medical men, as being more dignified than the natural hair. Their latest sur-

vival is to be found in legal full dress and as part of the livery of men-servants. For some time after wigs had ceased to be generally worn, the hair was powdered, and in old houses there may often be seen the tiny rooms adjoining the best bedrooms known as the "powdering closet." This dirty but becoming fashion also survived longest as part of a servant's livery. The heavy tax upon hair powder imposed by Pitt to strengthen his war budget had a good deal to do with its disuse

The sombre dress of a gentleman of to-day contrasts greatly with the effective show made by an eighteenth-century man of fashion. Modern taste dictates that a man's costume shall be as unobtrusive as possible; that of the period with which we are dealing demanded that it should be noticeable. Bright colours, rich lace, heavy trimmings, silk and satin fabrics, gay ribbons tying back the hair, which was worn long and powdered, dainty stockings and silver-buckled shoes, with an

TOWN AND COUNTRY

elaborately "cocked" hat and a long cane, combined to make a brilliant figure. When we add that for out-

door wear a sword was slung from the belt, and in winter a muff was carried, it is easy to realize how men's fashions have changed.

A man of less exalted position wore a more sober attire. A long, dark cloth coat with broad flaps and capacious pockets, wide sleeves and enormous cuffs, a long waist-coat, handsomely worked, and a great cocked hat upon a heavy, protruding wig proclaimed the country gentleman, the merchant, or the well-to-do citizen.



Dandies, George II's Reign

Townsmen of a poorer class wore very similar clothes, but of coarse material—"fustian," instead of cloth, and thick worsted stockings. In the country thick homespun and home-dyed fabrics were made into kneebreeches, short coats and smocks, and a little touch of decoration was supplied in the stitchery of the yokes and cuffs of these garments. Stout leather leggings protected the ankles, and shoes with wooden soles, called clogs, made a comfortable, if rather ungainly, footwear. The dress of country women was equally substantial: a short skirt of homespun or thick linen, very full; a short laced bodice and, above it, a kerchief folded across the neck. For work, a loose garment tied in at the waist, practically an overall, but usually then known as a "bedgown," was often worn to protect the rest, and of this the apron (naperon) is the degenerate survival.

The wives of yeomen and merchants wore dark materials enlivened by dainty kerchiefs and fine linen sleeves. The skirts were short and full, and worn over



Fruit or Cake Vendor,

several under ones, thus producing a bunchy appearance. Toward the close of the period the extraordinary fashion of "hoops," which anticipated the Victorian crinoline, had filtered down from the town belles and fine ladies to the womenfolk of plain citizens.

For great occasions a lady wore heavily brocaded satin or velvet, with a very large hoop and wide sleeves hanging open to the bottom of the skirt. Beautifully embroidered kerchiefs covered the neck and throat until the strife of the Continental wars led to the

exclusion of lawn and cambric and, indeed, of foreign fabrics generally. The head-dress varied greatly: the close-fitting "nightcap," copied from France, the "mob" cap, the Mary Queen of Scots cap, and the fancy erections of muslins representing birds, butterflies and flowers. Horse-riding was a favourite pursuit with women of fashion, and the habits worn had none of the severe plainness of the modern riding-dress. Blue slashed with white was a favourite combination; indeed, tradition says that our present navy colours, blue and white, originated in the admiration felt by George II for a lady's riding-habit. Hitherto there had been no uniform dress for sailors, but one was being planned, and the chance fancy of the King

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determined the colours. For some time yet, however, the short kilted skirt nearly to the knees—so fascinat-

ing a detail in a stage pirate's garb—remained, to be finally replaced by the dark blue trousers, very wide at the ankles, and the loose short blouse. Both sailors and soldiers wore pigtails, heavily powdered, of which the broad collar on a sailor's blouse, and the "flash" on the collar of the Welsh Fusiliers, are reminders.

The military dress of the eighteenth century was singularly unsuitable and eccentric. Then, as now, officers wore private dress unless on duty or on state occasions. Their uniform was largely velvet and silk, with white satin and dainty lace; and gilt and coloured tassels, ribbons and jewelled studs were prominent decorations. The rank and file

ailor's Uniform,

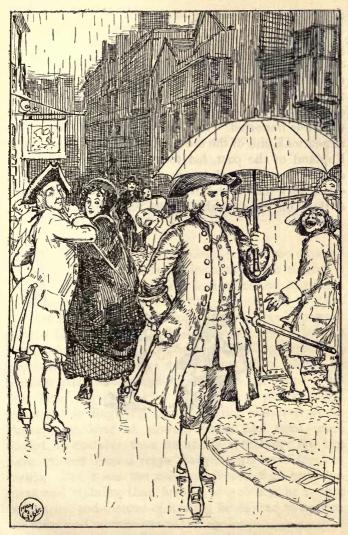
had long coats with enormous flaps. These were at first caught back from the front, from their manifest inconvenience, one supposes, and later cut off altogether, thus leading up to the "tail" coat. A long waistcoat was worn, handsomely embroidered or braided, with white knee-breeches, long stockings and heavily buckled shoes; a stiff leather stock under the chin was also worn, to ensure an erect carriage of the head, and a large three-cornered hat crowned the ribbon-tied hair.

During our period that useful article the umbrella came into use. At first it was carried exclusively by women, being looked upon as "French" and "finicky." Indeed a man bearing one had to run the gauntlet of much unmannerly ridicule from the Sedan chair-

men and the drivers of hackney coaches. The prejudice was defied by the philanthropist, Jonas Hanway, who, though his philanthropy is forgotten, is remembered for his courage in this matter.

The food of the eighteenth century was greatly lacking in the plenty and variety which have distinguished it for the past hundred years. customary meal-times for the mass of people were seven A.M., noon and six P.M., but amongst the upper classes the principal meal was usually at two o'clock instead of noon, and on great occasions an hour later. Bread was made from rye and oats as well as from wheat, as in Germany to-day, and very few poor people could ever afford the last. Though rye and barley and oaten bread are suitable and nourishing for the very strong, yet, through the lack of skill in preparing it, it was a decidedly coarse and unpalatable product. Fish was largely eaten, mostly when salted, as the slowness of transport made fresh fish impossible in most parts of the country; beef and mutton formed the staple meats, and the usual method of cooking was by stewing. Roast meat was considered a delicacy and, as only open fires were used and the ingenious little device known as a "roasting-jack" had not become common, the spit was turned by a boy-scullion, or a dog. Very few vegetables were eaten or grown; the potato was not well cultivated or plentiful, and the English cabbage, with onions, and gradually turnips and carrots, were in most general use. A few wild growths, such as nettles and garlic, were used by frugal housewives in the country.

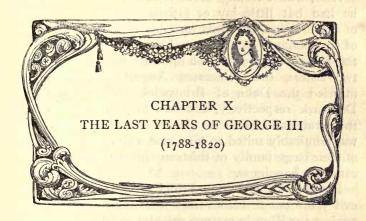
A rough home-made beer, cider, perry, and other wines made from English fruits, were to be found in



Early Days of the Umbrella

any well-ordered household. Tea and coffee were drunk by the well-to-do until the foreign wars paralysed British trade. Then both became too dear, and the frugal substitute, which lasted far into the nineteenth century, was an infusion of boiling water and well-toasted bread. Beer and wine were the ordinary drinks even of children, and much foreign wine was imported. The lack of sensible or absorbing recreations, and of the old mirthful games of the Merrie England of the past, led to greediness in eating and drinking, so that gluttony and drunkenness became established habits, and over-indulgence in the pleasures of the table a pardonable excuse for illness.





HE latter years of George III were clouded by the malady of insanity. The weakness had showed itself first when he had been but five years on the throne, and in 1788 the complaint had so developed that it was necessary to appoint a regent. Before, however, the Prince of Wales could assume the position the King recovered, and continued his royal duties until 1810. Then he became quite insane, and for the last ten years of his life lived in complete seclusion, a pitiful sight, engrossed in fingering and matching coloured wools. Perhaps no king of modern times had been more envied, or enviable, than he at his accession; few can have entered upon a reign fraught with such developments. But it was the unhappy result of his temperament and training that, instead of guiding, he sought to destroy, and instead of leading he desired to oppose, the ideas and movements of the age.

Also, whilst feeling warm affection for his family, he had but little joy or satisfaction in them. Two of his brothers, the Duke of Gloucester and the Duke of Cumberland, secretly married subjects, and braving the King's displeasure set up their own courts. His two sisters, the Princesses Augusta and Caroline, married the Duke of Brunswick and the King of Denmark respectively, and had great misfortunes in their states and families. His consort, Queen Charlotte, was admirably suited to him, and a devoted wife; but of their large family of thirteen children few were any cause for happiness.

His eldest son, George, Prince of Wales, followed the evil tradition of Hanoverian heirs, and openly went against the King in matters private, social and political. His favourite daughter, the Princess Amelia, died young; Charlotte, the Princess Royal, married the King of Wurtemberg. She was but sixteen years of age and he a widower. Their troubled life might have been seen to be foreshadowed in the disturbing circumstances of their departure from England on their marriage. The mutiny in the navy was just then (1797) at its height, and the royal frigate at the Nore could not be manned; so that the voyage had to be begun from Yarmouth. Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, the King's fourth son, was the father of Queen Victoria, whose reign was even longer than that of George III, and marked by even greater and happier changes than was his.

Whilst the sovereign spent his lonely days in a palace, becoming gradually blind and deaf, his realm and subjects shared in a new state of things. The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, which drove one dynasty

from the throne and established another royal house though of great historical and political importance, made but little difference to the land and the bulk of the people. But the "Industrial Revolution" of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth century was one which concerned the people at large and individually. Some of these great changes will be noticed.

I. The Face of the Country was altered.—Where had been for centuries stretches of tilled land and pastures, interspersed with few boundaries, there were the carefully hedged fields and enclosed spaces so familiar to us in modern England. The many small farms held and worked by individuals, with but little hired help, were combined and made into large ones. Between 1750 and 1810 there were passed over 2000 separate Acts of Parliament authorizing the enclosing of "common" fields or "waste" lands. During the same years the roads between the principal towns were levelled to some extent, made and kept in tolerable repair; and a system of turnpikes or toll-bars provided a good deal of their upkeep. A more noticeable feature still was the canal-making, which threaded England with waterways to be used for the transport of goods, especially coal. Another great change was the growth of large towns in Lancashire and Staffordshire and the dwindling away of the industrial villages in East Anglia, which had been the centre of the woollen trade.

For the first thirty years of the eighteenth century the country had differed little from the England of Tudor, or even earlier, times. No good roads connected villages and towns; rough tracks lay between the various parts of a farm; a man's holding was often

scattered over a large area, causing much loss of time in getting about. Here would lie a strip of pasture; there a strip of arable land, rough grazing elsewhere, wood and coppice still farther away; and a share of the common land, where each villager permitted his cattle to feed and stray, lay still beyond. Around the cottage was the farm "garth," or "yard," with shelters, not much inferior to the low cottage itself, for the animals.

As in Anglo-Saxon times, each farmer sought to provide everything for his own needs and to sell (or barter) only the little he had in excess. The womenfolk spun the wool for the clothes of the family; the skins were tanned for leather at home; harness, saddles, baskets, tools, candles and the utensils of wood for the table were all made at home. Each household brewed its own beer, ground its own corn and baked its own bread; wove, dyed and made up its own fleeces; killed and salted its own meat. And in those times every family ate salt meat, if any, for the greater part of the year. There being no winter foods for animals, nearly all the "stock" was killed before winter. Sometimes there is a sentimental admiration expressed for the "good old days," when all articles of food were homegrown or home-prepared or home-made. But few of us would care for the real things as they were: the sour, harsh beer, the hard, dark bread or the toughened salt meat of Georgian England. The sheep were more valuable for their wool than for their flesh, and only after repeated shearings did they become mutton. The oxen were gaunt, hard-working creatures, used so strenuously for ploughing that they had little leisure to grow fat; and the recipe to "hang beef at Martinmas for Easter" hardly served to turn it into good meat.

Since there were hardly any large farms, owners had little chance of becoming skilled at any one thing, such

as rearing fine cattle, or growing specially good corn, or making excellent butter. Nor could they afford good tools or expensive implements; and as some of the land was on steep or rolling downs, even the ox-drawn ploughs to which eight or twelve beasts were yoked could not be used-it had to be dug or "tilled" by hand. The crops that were raised were very inferior, both in quantity and quality, to those of modern times, for the old methods



A Fair

of treating the soil were still used, and instead of dressings, and change of crops, each field lay idle (fallow) one year in three for sun and air to restore its fertility. And there was far less cultivated land than in nineteenth-century England: a large part of the country was covered with woods and marshes, and a wet winter sufficed to swamp and obliterate many of the roads. Essex, like Derbyshire, Northumberland and Nottinghamshire, was mostly forest-land; Cambridge and Huntingdon were largely undrained fens; the wealds of Surrey and Sussex desolate wastes, with the blackened remains of the old iron-smelting industry, sprinkled with "bloomeries," or furnace-hearths.

Scotland was even wilder, and with proportionately less cultivated land than England, but it led the way

in the great agricultural changes which came about. For a great nobleman, making a hobby of farming, as wealthy men then began for the first time to do, grew turnips as an experiment, and the new roots occasioned both surprise and rebellious interest. The chief aim of most farmers and landowners was to keep to the safe ways of their fathers and to shun dangerous novelties. Lord Townshend, once Secretary of State with Walpole, had, like the old Roman statesman Cincinnatus, retired from stormy political life to quiet seclusion in the country, and was one of the first to try the new methods of cultivation. Rural England for the next fifty years knew little, perhaps, of this nobleman's political success, but his farming experiments won for him the half-admiring, half-scornful title of "turnip Townshend."

One of the novelties universally shunned was weeding; usually, growing wheat and barley could hardly be seen for the plentiful crop of "tares" amongst them. By very slow degrees the new methods were introduced, chiefly by a few men who travelled on the Continent and, on returning, wrote accounts of the more intelligent land-cultivation pursued abroad. Their suggestions and counsels must have been far beyond the power of the average small farmer to adopt, as he had no capital, no good implements, and was hampered by his scattered holding, which everywhere bordered, or lay between, similar portions belonging to neighbours. Hence, however, came the incentive to combine farms and to work on a large scale; and the growing population made it impossible for Great Britain to "get a living"-i.e. to feed her people and hold her own against foreign foes-on

the old thriftless system of Tudor and mediæval England.

During the sixty years of George III's reign the population of England and Wales grew from 6,750,000

to 12,000,000. When he came to the throne the most populous part of the kingdom was that containing the counties of Gloucester, Somerset, Wiltshire, Northampton and Oxford; at his death this central district was thinly populated, and the crowded areas were Middlesex and Lancashire. with Staffordshire and Warwick next populous. The mouths of the great rivers, the Thames, the Humber, the Tyne and, in Scotland, the Forth and the Clyde, became the centres of the shipbuilding industry, which thrived



Lamplighter, End of Eighteenth Century

immensely under the growing foreign trade; hence the great towns, with their clanging noise. Old cathedral cities and county towns fall into the background, and new ones, Birmingham, Sheffield, Leeds and Manchester, come to the front. Goldsmith's *Deserted Village* (1770) regretfully pictures the passing away of the old order and the coming of the new.

2. The Lives of the People were changed.—Although for some years to come the majority of the population

were still employed in agriculture, yet a very large minority became artisans and workers in materials. The small home industries, in which the women and children had spun and woven and knitted the wool given out by a "factor" or manager, disappeared as machines were invented, and the workers gathered in the great buildings known as factories. Many soon lost their skill in handwork and became minders of machines; the different steps in making any article became separated into different departments, and each worker made only one part of the whole, or completed only one process of the many. Since some of the duties belonging to factory work were very simple, the children, who in former times had helped their mothers with some easy steps in the work, were now drafted into the factories, and kept for long hours at labour. They were also employed in coal mines, to push the little laden trolleys along the galleries, or to sit in dark niches in the wall and pull open the doors that separated the passages when the trolleys came rolling along. The children in workhouses, belonging to unfortunate, or perhaps thriftless, parents, and the orphans for whom there was no one to care, were handed over to mine-owners and factory managers as "apprentices," at the age of seven or eight years. So hard an apprenticeship might well have been called slavery; and indeed the children of the poor generally were so completely drawn into the new industrial system, in all the mining and manufacturing districts, that it has taken more than a century to free them from it. Even now, after many Factory Acts, and even compulsory Education Acts, there are thousands of children under fourteen who work in factories half the

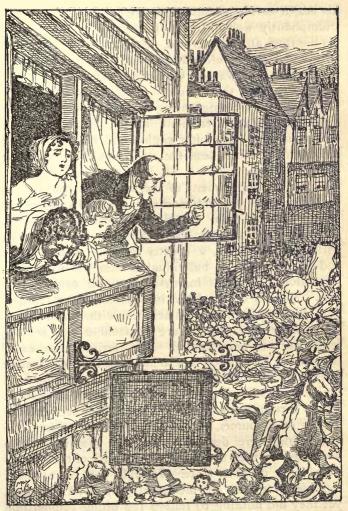
day and go to school the other half. These "half-timers," as they are called, are the heirs of that dismal legacy, the substitution of manufactures for agriculture.

On the other hand, the use of machinery, and of new and quicker processes in dressing and preparing materials, lessened the cost of many of the necessaries of life, so that a larger number of the population of these islands lived in greater comfort, and enjoyed better houses, food and clothing. But for those dependent upon the labour of their hands it was a time of hardship. Prices were high and wages were low; to eke out the wages, allowances were made by the overseers of the poor—i.e. grants of bread or a small sum of money as parish relief. Naturally, this prevented any strong measures being taken to get wages raised, so that employers of labour were the only people to profit by the arrangement, the relief being contributed by the taxation of all the non-pauper community.

During these years a new class of rich and influential people grew up, the manufacturers and ironmasters; not labourers, but employers of labour, since called "capitalists." No longer were the aristocratic landowners and country gentlemen the dominant party in the House of Commons. In numbers and influence they gave way to these representatives of the mercantile and trading interests. Inevitably, too, there appeared a clearly marked line of division between the employer and the employed, between the man who supplied the capital and the man who supplied the labour, in the great business of production. The British capacity for adventure and colonization had long been known; now was developed a fresh capacity—that of combining scientific knowledge with practical work, and using

it to explore the bowels of the earth and to turn Nature's secrets to account. The captains of adventure were succeeded by these captains of industry; the tillers of the soil became the factory "hands"; "Merrie England" became one of the workshops of the world.

Through the greatly increased production of wealth, Great Britain was able to hold her own through all the long strain of her foreign wars. She was well in advance of the Continental nations in practical applications of science, and thus was first able to supply the world's markets with her goods. It was an age of great inventions. Some of the names of the inventors have come down to us in the annals of the time, but only comparatively few. This is partly because a perfected process or a perfected tool is only arrived at by slow degrees; one worker after another correcting, adapting and improving the original idea. Partly, too, because inventors are rarely practical, so far as self-interest is concerned; and thus the man who can possess and control the invention is likely to profit rather than the man who designs it. So that few of the originators of improved tools or speedier processes or ingenious appliances were amongst the new aristocracy of wealth. Around the names of some, however, cling the fame and glory, whilst those of the factory owners, and persons enriched by the inventions, are buried in oblivion. Of such is Hargreaves, who devised the spinning jenny, calling it after his wife. One day he saw that her spinning wheel fell, and whilst she held the wool it continued to revolve on the floor. This gave him the idea that the action did not depend upon the position, and he constructed one with eight wheels worked by one treadle. So keenly was



Troopers charging the Mob at Manchester, 1819

his labour-saving machine resented, when it was once triumphantly working, that Hargreaves had to flee for his life from an angry crowd. So had Arkwright, who, two years later, developed Hargreaves' idea and worked the machine by water. Crompton, a few years afterwards, invented the "mule," or multiplex spinning wheel, and sold his rights for seventy pounds. Watts, a mathematical instrument maker, worked at the cumbrous steam pumping engine and built it so that it consumed much less fuel, and could be used for other purposes.

A sad accompaniment of the new era of machinery and increased productiveness was the displacing of hand workers from wheel and bench and loom. Naturally, the sufferers could not at once realize that, with cheaper goods, a greater demand would arise; and indeed many an individual worker was in peril of starvation before an increased demand could affect him. So they opposed the introduction of machines, and the improvement of machines, with violence and riot, seeing only that, where a machine was set up, fewer workers were wanted. The terrible excesses of the French Revolution had so impressed all responsible people in the country that public opinion supported the Government in their stern measures of repression. Public meetings and speeches were forbidden, and the unions of labourers, which might have replaced the old guilds, were declared illegal, so that those who depended for their livelihood on the work of their hands were in a pitiable state. Though the Government refrained from the old mediæval plan of fixing wages, yet they did nothing to relieve the biting competition amongst wage-earners; and we are reaping to-day the

harvest of that disastrous sowing. At Manchester, four years after the battle of Waterloo, mounted troops fired on, and rode over, a mob of men, women and children, on the open space of St Peter's Fields, and derisive sympathizers nicknamed the occasion, "Peterloo."

3. Great Institutions.—The increase in foreign trade caused rapid growth in the number of trading ships, known as the Mercantile Marine. In the early years of the reign of George III an enterprising coffee-house keeper set up a register of sh ps; and during the succeeding years "Lloyds" became the great central organization wherein are recorded the class, name, owner and tonnage of every trading ship; its movements, destination and cargo. Out of it grew the system of insurance which makes possible the facing of heavy risks. "Posted missing at Lloyds," is a phrase which may be of serious importance only to comparatively few people; but everyone in this island kingdom should feel it a matter of some personal interest, dependent as we are for nearly everything we need, upon the ceaseless hurrying to and fro of the merchant ships.

The success of the Bank of England (founded 1694), and the increasing wealth of the country, led to a great extension of the system of banking; the substitution of banks for private hoards, and of guarantees instead of the passing of actual cash from hand to hand.

National finance, which largely depended upon loans raised for war purposes, encouraged the system of investments; and thence developed the enormous business of the Stock Exchange, where money is

bought and sold by means of investments, as commodities are in other markets.

In connexion with this may be mentioned the Royal Mint, where the actual coins of the realm are cast. In old days several great nobles and ecclesiastics had private mints, and were free to issue their own coinage, which was "legal tender" in their own territories. But this system had long passed away, and the Government, in making itself responsible for the purity of the coinage, had taken over all rights to make it. A few



Gang of Prisoners going for Trial

years before the death of George III the ancient office of "Master of the Mint" was abolished, and his office combined with that of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

4. The Administration of Justice.—Although the British code of laws and legal system were in advance of those of the Continental nations in some details, yet the carrying out of penalties was harsh, unreasonable and cruel. Prisons were private institutions and the expenses were covered by the payments wrung out of the prisoners. These unfortunate people were most of them debtors, not criminals, and were supposed to be

detained until they could pay their creditors. They were herded together in large underground chambers, the strong and brutal tyrannizing over the weak. Little restraint was exerted by the gaolers, except that of detaining them there. Thus in every town the prison or prisons were centres of disease and infection due to dirt and neglect. A specially revolting form of illness, known as gaol fever, sometimes spread virulently beyond the prison limits and reminded those outside of the perils of the system. In the middle of the eighteenth century London had such a stern warning, for the Lord Mayor, an alderman, a sheriff, some barristers, and several jurymen died of typhus fever caught at the Old Bailey trials of a batch of prisoners. The cheering thing to note is that, toward the end of the century, the evil was attacked in earnest from two different sides. On the one, John Howard taught by example and argument that the poor creatures imprisoned by the State were still human, and that the treatment they received was wrong, and a disgrace. He was aided in his work by a notable woman of the Society of Friends, Elizabeth Fry, who in the eastern counties devoted her life to visiting and ministering to the inmates of the gaols. On the other hand, Jeremy Bentham, the philosopher, exerted himself to induce the Government to take over the prisons, and to make the treatment of prisoners wholesome and reasonable, not only for their own sakes, but also for the sake of the community at large. But not for many a long year was anything accomplished beyond a rather more humane treatment in some of the smaller prisons. The Government still retained, and used, the system of transporting prisoners to our distant colonies to any planter or farmer who wanted labourers,

but took no responsibility for the care of those shut up in the state gaols.

5. Social Progress.—One important matter which comes under this head was the increased care for the health of the people. Throughout the century, as indeed for a long time previously, the great scourge was smallpox. It was always present, especially in London, and at times was raging. The great surgeon, Edward Jenner, announced his discovery in 1796 of vaccination as a protective against small-pox, and by degrees it was adopted, and presently made compulsory. But the chief safeguard was, and is, cleanliness—in streets and houses and persons and habits; and the gradual improvement in drainage, building, access of light and air and supply of water helped to bring about an almost total disappearance of the disease. A large number of hospitals for the treatment of the sick poor and sufferers from accidents were established during the latter years of George III's reign; none was endowed, but depended upon the benevolent support of the community. The story goes that, in the mid-years of the nineteenth century, a foreigner travelling in England said that the thing which had impressed him most was the noble inscription over so many large buildings, "Supported by Voluntary Contributions."

In the eighteenth century two splendid foundations, each now so great and impressive, stood side by side on the southern side of London Bridge. In connexion with them began the system of medical schools, where surgeons and physicians could be trained for this work. As an outcome of this higher standard of medical science, there were founded the societies which afterwards grew into the Royal College

of Surgeons and the Royal College of Physicians. Thus began the gradual disappearance of the "Barber-Chirurgeons," or old practitioners of the healing art.

Perhaps the most striking example of the awakening of a conscience in a nation was the attempt made to abolish the slave trade, an institution almost as old as human history. A young Cambridge undergraduate, one Clarkson, resolved to bring to practical effect the arguments he had used in an essay which won a prize at the university. Some of the Society of Friends sympathized and, presently, Wilberforce, M.P. for Yorkshire, became so strongly impressed that he set himself to influence Parliament (1790). Pitt, ever alive to noble appeals and a supporter of generous efforts. spoke ardently in favour of the reform. But though English law recognized that under the British flag, on British soil, a slave became free, yet the shipping trade of Bristol and Liverpool owed its chief prosperity to the number of ships engaged in carrying slaves, thousands a year, to the West Indies, for the cultivation of the sugar and tobacco plantations. So that the Bill for the Abolition of Slavery was thrown out in the House of Commons by the influence of the many men of property who were enriched by our colonial trade (1792).

The French Revolution and its terrors so influenced men's minds that Pitt himself was amongst those who refused to strive again for the cause of abolition; but the Bill was one of the first to pass in the year after his death (1807). It took many years, however, for the holding of slaves in British territory to become impossible; and the carrying of them to plantations continued for a long time under specious pretexts of apprentice-

ships or contracts. The effort, though not immediately successful, remains one of the most meritorious of the reign of George III, and does much to redeem the age from the general charge of being satisfied with low ideals.

6. Parliamentary Government.—It remains only to be noted how completely the ideas and aims of George III were thwarted and defeated during his long reign. At first they were, on the whole, successful; he would be "King" and govern personally, if not by, then in spite of, his ministers. But conditions and circumstances were too strong for him. Foreign wars; the successful revolt of the American colonies; the great economic changes in the country; and the strong and determined line taken by the leaders of the great political parties-all these, combined with his own breakdown in health and sanity, together brought about the triumph of parliamentary government and the establishment of a strictly limited royal power. During his reign the real political power passed from the great Whig lords to the landowning interest in the House of Commons, and thence to the new class of manufacturers and employers. The fact that Fox was openly revolutionary in his sympathies and ideals led the King to rely completely on Pitt, and he loaded him with honours. The only measure upon which the King resolutely held out was the granting of political and religious freedom to Roman Catholics; and when Pitt died, in 1806, this was the one upon which he had yielded to his sovereign as the price for carrying many other reforms.

It was in the irony of things that, after Pitt's death, Fox was the only man who could keep together an administration; and with reluctance the King accepted

him as Prime Minister. The next year he, too, died; and with him disappeared the strong party divisions, though the names of Whig and Tory remained. Of the group of leading statesmen who piloted Great Britain through her struggle for life against Napoleon the names of Grenville, Castlereagh, Canning and Lord Liverpool stand out most prominently. The Prince of Wales succeeded his invalid father as acting sovereign, Prince Regent, and by his frivolous life and unworthy conduct entirely cured the British people of any tendency to a passionate loyalty to the throne. We read that, after the great victories of 1814, when the whole country felt a thrill of relief that the archfoe, Napoleon, was conquered, the names of all the

Continental sovereigns whose armies had helped the British troops were loudly cheered; but the Prince Regent was hissed and shouted at in his

journey across London.

With the close of the war everyone had hoped for better times. But the huge destruction of capital which war means; the high prices caused by the



Water Cart (Hogarth)

expenses incurred by the troops; the return into peaceful occupation of discharged soldiers; the influx of disabled and invalid men; and the heavy taxation involved in covering the losses involved, made the next few years a hard and painful time. Then one or two bad harvests so sent up the price of wheat, that the chief necessary of life was beyond the reach of all the poorer part of the population.

While the Government planned and quarrelled, and Parliament assembled and dispersed, and the Prince

Regent pursued his frivolous way, the aged King lived in a suite of quiet rooms in Windsor Castle, nursing



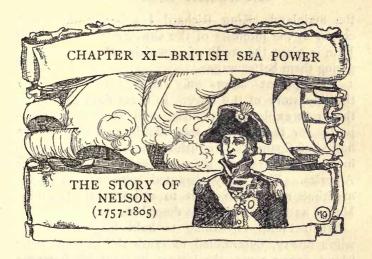
George IV

his harmless delusions. He would walk about the corridors holding imaginary conversations with statesmen dead and gone; or, forgetting that she was dead, send tender messages to his favourite daughter, the Princess Amelia. Queen Charlotte, herself in failing health, tried to maintain the dignity of the Court by holding the usual receptions, till in 1817 she died at Kew Palace. The poor King, all unknowing, sat beside an ancient harpsichord believed to have belonged to Queen Anne, and lost himself in dreams of

beautiful music, now and then rousing himself to order — "Court mourning for King George. He was a good man!" Twice a day royal messengers carried word to his ministers in London of his state of health, and soon after the Queen died he took to his bed and placidly dreamed away the days. Toward the end of January 1830 he died, "the monarch of the greatest country that the world had yet seen," all unwitting of her glory and her strife. The Prince Regent succeeded him as George IV.



Ploughing with Oxen, Eighteenth Century



NYONE looking at a map of the British Empire cannot fail to notice two points: one, how scattered are the dominions that form it; and the other, that great expanses of sea separate the various parts. It is therefore easy to believe that a large and powerful navy is necessary for defence, and we should expect history to show that sea-power has had a great deal to do with the building of the Empire.

From its geographical position, Britain has had, all through her history, to pay attention to the advantage and the menace of the sea. King Alfred, amongst his other great works, is said to have improved the ships of his day, making them "longer, swifter, steadier" than ever before. The Angevin kings, who considered England as an offshoot of their Continental dominions, kept up a fleet on account of their journeys to and from

the mainland. King Richard I enlarged the navy, chiefly in the interests of the Crusades; and to King John is given the credit of organizing the seamen and giving them better wages.

The gallant sailors of Tudor times begin the thrilling story of the navy. In those days Spain was the great exploring, colonizing and naval power; and partly for the sake of the wealth, and partly from hatred of Spain, the English seamen set themselves to intercept the treasure ships on their way from South America. Thus they disputed with the strongest maritime nation the right to sail on the "Spanish Main," as it was haughtily described.

When Philip II, failing to hold England as his wife's dowry, determined to crush the insolent little island power across the waters, he sent his immense fleet, the Armada, on the errand. Then England realized that her foe must be met at sea. How every ship, great and small, was collected; how rich men built and equipped them; how towns and corporations did the same; how men volunteered at every port and no inland shire held back—all these are told in the exciting records of that perilous time.

The brilliant success of her efforts, and the complete and humiliating defeat of her enemy, gave England at once a high position among the maritime nations. Indeed we read that Drake and his daring companions thought to seize Portugal; and, though his design failed, the English ships more than held their own against the Spaniards in whatever seas they met. Then exploration under Raleigh succeeded the buccaneering under Drake.

The next glorious annals of the navy belong to

THE STORY OF NELSON

Cromwell's time, when the power of Holland came into direct conflict with British interests. The Dutch in the seventeenth century were the leading commercial nation of Europe; their merchant ships traversed every sea, and their admirals held aloft the flag of the United Netherlands on all coasts. England threw down the challenge in her Navigation Acts, which forbade entry to British ports of any trading ships of other nations. Open hostilities on the seas resulted, and with the important victories of the time the name of Admiral Blake is for ever connected. Cromwell was so resolute in his dealings with the Continental nations that soon the British flag was saluted wherever it was met, and thus England's supremacy of the seas was acknowledged, although, as yet, her merchant navy had not eclipsed that of Holland.

With the Restoration the glory of our naval annals became dimmed; the rival Dutch were victorious in most encounters, and even defiantly sent their ships up the Medway and the Thames. King James II, following the example of Spain, claimed the dignity of Lord High Admiral, but, as our country has long since learned, much besides lofty figureheads is needed to maintain a navy.

After the Revolution (1688) the struggle for mastery of the sea was no longer with Spain or with Holland, but with France. In 1692 the victories of Admiral Rooke restored England to her high position, and in the War of the Spanish Succession she held control of the Mediterranean.

But it was in the eighteenth century that the achievements of the British navy had the most important and far-reaching effects on later history; and the impressive

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record leads on step by step until it centres round the name of England's greatest sailor, Nelson. During the reigns of the first two Georges and Walpole's supremacy the affairs of the navy were neglected. Under the pressing incentive of a threatened invasion, or a great gain of treasure, any government or nation may rise to the necessary level of determination and sacrifice. But in times of peace a spirit of negligence is apt to prevail, and so it was during those years. A stern reminder of the need for efficient ships and men came with the wretched incident of "Jenkins' ear," but the ill-equipped fleet which was sent out to the West Indies only satisfied popular feeling at home, and gained no prestige or distinction abroad.

Three great causes contributed to the awakening of the British Government and the British nation to a sense of the imperative need for a strong navy:

(I) the growth of the colonies looking to the mother country for defence; (2) the rivalry with France in Europe, in India and in America; and (3) the fear of losing the India trade established by the East India Company. So that when Pitt came to power he set to work to organize and reconstruct both navy and army, and set on foot a system whereby losses in war or by accidents should be made good from a supply of able men. Thus began the method of "impressment" for the navy; or the compulsory enlistment of youths and men in the seaports and coast towns.

At the accession of George III we read that there were just under 300 ships, all told, in the Royal Navy. Of these the finest was the Royal George, built in the previous reign, and its 2000 tons proclaimed it the heaviest and most formidable of the fleet. The tragic

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end of this ship is commemorated in Cowper's verse.

The successes of the navy had largely contributed to the glory of the year of victories (1759), and it was recognized that, to ensure its usefulness, it must be carefully managed and fostered in times of peace. The office of Lord High Admiral was held for the last time by James II, and, like other royal prerogatives, the power and duties belonging to it were, under William III, transferred to a board or committee. The distinguished commander, Lord Hawke, became First Lord of the Admiralty, and many reforms were introduced. The year after George III came to the throne an experiment was tried which should be regarded as the germ of our ironclad and "Dreadnought" system of to-day. The oaken timbers, winter-felled and carefully seasoned, were overlaid with copper. Soon all ships were treated thus, and in this we may see begun the great change from "heart of oak" to "ironclad" in our ships of war.

Even more important, however, than ships are the officers and men. The Tudor instance of John Cabot setting out from Bristol on his voyage of exploration with two ships manned by prisoners released from gaol was still copied. Most of the crews were the adventurous ruffians of the lower-class population of the seaports, with an admixture of strong, able-bodied men "impressed" by the Government's agents, and of others undergoing sentences of imprisonment. One of the measures of reform was to offer bounties to seamen: the Government and various corporations of the great towns thus attracted a better class of men. A system of apprenticeship for lads was also begun,

and in it we may recognize the origin of our present naval schools and colleges and training-ships. The ranks and grades of officers were more clearly defined, and rates of pay and pensions instituted. But still for many years the adventurous lad of gentle birth was launched on his career by being privately entered on the quarter-deck list of some relative or friend in command of a ship. Thus he felt his feet, learned his duties, and, though taught in an informal way that would shock our present naval instructors, he often turned out a credit to the service and a devoted and energetic officer. But the most powerful cause in making the navy popular was the system of "prizemoney," by which, during the many years of European war, British ships became the possessors of the wealth of captured vessels belonging to a hostile nation. There was not only the delight of the adventure, and the excitement of the chase and attack, but also the very tangible reward of a share of the spoil proportionate to the rank of the sailor, from commander to cabin-boy. One such Spanish ship laden with treasure yielded over £250,000 to one of the two ships which seized her.

The work of the navy in exploration, as distinct from defence, will be described in another chapter.

In 1793 the quiet days came to an end with the opening of the war with France. For four years Great Britain was one nation in the coalition against that country, and was deputed to guard the seas. During a time of reverses and defeats the victory of Lord Howe, in 1794, over the French fleet under Admiral Villaret was the most cheering event. The foes were very evenly matched in numbers: twenty-five British to

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twenty-six French ships fronted each other on the sunny morning of 1st June. At evening the victory was decisive, though with a heavy loss of nearly 1200 men. The French lost double that number in killed and wounded, besides as many again taken prisoners on seven captured ships.

The next year Admiral Cornwallis faced a large French squadron with his little fleet of eight ships of the line, for the British navy was now shaking off timidity and combining method with dash. This was

well; for by 1797 Great Britain stood alone against the pretensions of France and Spain, which had now become allied powers. In that year Admiral Jervis gave a severe check to the Spanish fleet (which was on its way to join the French fleet at Brest) at Cape St Vincent. By a skilful manœuvre of his ship, supported by Commander Nelson, he broke the Spanish line and got the British vessels well in



Lord Nelson

amongst the "huddled mass" of the enemy's fleet. Jervis had fifteen ships wherewith to confront the Spanish twenty-five, but the daring of his attack carried the day. We have the account of the surrender in Nelson's own words; and for his valour there he was made a Knight of the Order of the Bath. Nelson's ship, the Captain, was close under the Spanish flagship, the San Josef, and "at this moment a Spaniard looked over the quarter-deck rail and said they surrendered. Soon I was on the quarter-deck, where the Spanish captain, with a bow, presented me his sword and said the Admiral was dying of his wounds. . . . And on the

quarter-deck of a Spanish first-rate, extravagant as the story may seem, did I receive the swords of vanquished Spaniards, which as I received, I gave to William Fearney, one of my barge-men, who put them with the greatest sang froid under his arm."

It is impossible, in reading this account, not to recall another scene on a Spanish quarter-deck, with a gallant English commander amidst the "stately Spanish men," though the details are different: in the one Sir Richard Grenville dying a captive, though he had led his fleet to victory, in the other Sir Horatio Nelson receiving the officers' swords in token of surrender.

In the same year, a few months later, Admiral Duncan not only defeated but annihilated the Dutch fleet at Camperdown. In naval annals there are many gallant details recorded of Duncan's captains, each of whom seemed to act on the principle of making for the hottest fire.

These events led brilliantly toward the great achievement of 1798, when Napoleon's plans for the invasion of England received a decisive check. To Nelson belongs the honour of destroying the French control of the Mediterranean and the subduing of her seapower. Nelson had planned to engage the French fleet at Toulon, but missed it, and gave chase toward Egypt, coming up with it in Aboukir Bay. Southey gives us a stirring account of this long-past struggle: "When the Zealous signalled 'The Enemy,' Nelson had for days hardly taken either sleep or food; he now ordered his dinner to be served while preparations were making for battle. As he and his officers rose from table, he said to them, 'Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey.' . . .

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During the whole pursuit it had been Nelson's practice, whenever circumstances would permit, to have his captains on board the Vanguard and explain to them his own ideas of the different and best modes of attack. 'First gain your victory,' he said, 'then make the best use of it you can.' His disposal of his ships for the attack led Captain Berry to exclaim with transport, 'If we succeed, what will the world say?' 'There is no if in the case,' replied the Admiral: 'but who may live to tell the story is another question.' . . . Nelson had six colours flying in different parts of the rigging of his ship, the Vanguard, lest they should be shot away; that they should be hauled down no British admiral considers a possibility." How the engagement lasted through all the hours of daylight (1st, 2nd August), and on into the night by the light of exploded and burning ships, is one of the thrilling records of naval warfare. Then Nelson received a bad wound in the head, and was carried below stunned and bleeding. As he became conscious, and found himself in the "cockpit," or ship's hold, amidst numbers of wounded men, he saw the surgeon hastening to him from some poor suffering sailor. "No!" he exclaimed, "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." He and others believed that his wound was mortal, but on the surgeon examining it he found that it was merely superficial; and the ship's anxiety was changed to delight and joy as its commander insisted upon getting to work with his secretary.

Suddenly a cry was heard that the *Orient*, the French admiral's flagship, was on fire; and Nelson found his way up on deck and took command, ordering boats to be let down to rescue the sailors from the burning ship.

The admiral, Brueys, remained on deck with most of his crew, though some flung themselves into the sea and were rescued; and presently the Orient blew up with a terrible explosion. This was a signal to stop fighting, and no more impressive thing was ever known than the sudden silencing of the guns. The commodore of the Orient was a Portuguese, named Casa-Bianca, and after the fashion of the time his young son was learning his trade on his father's ship. The boy's sailor-like courage is commemorated by Mrs Hemans in her ballad. The truce lasted only till the burning shreds and splinters had been cleared from the decks, and then the firing began again. At daybreak there were but two French ships with their colours flying; and only four of the whole fleet escaped. Well might Nelson write: "Victory is not a name strong enough for such a scene; it is a conquest."

To resume from Southey's story: "Of thirteen sail of the line, nine were taken and two burnt; of the four frigates, one was sunk and another burnt in a villanous manner by her captain, who with his crew escaped to shore. The British loss, in killed and wounded, was 895. Westcott was the only captain who fell. Of the French 3115, including the wounded, were sent on shore by cartel, and 5225 perished."

The peerage he expected was Nelson's reward for this. Great Britain had established her position as mistress of the seas, but France, through her First Consul, Napoleon Buonaparte, was supreme on the Continent. The Treaty of Amiens (1801-1802) settled conditions of peace between that country, Spain, Holland and Great Britain.

The terms were very unfavourable to England, and



Nelson instructing his Captains

the manner of negotiating them insulting; so that it was inevitable that war should break out again before long. In 1803 the rupture was complete, and then was added the final brilliant chapter to Britain's sea story in connexion with Napoleon. He had returned to his old determination to invade England; so to Nelson was allotted the charge of the Mediterranean, whilst Cornwallis was sent to the Atlantic.

Then began a weary time of waiting, followed by an exciting period of stratagem. Napoleon sought to tempt Nelson to forsake Europe and chase some of his ships to the West Indies; and presently, after some manœuvring, the French admiral, Villeneuve, contrived to join part of the Spanish fleet at Corunna. For two years our fleets, under Collingwood and Nelson, watched and waited and chased and returned to their stations. Then on 29th September 1805 they came together at Cadiz, ready to strike a decisive blow. It was Nelson's birthday; and he was determined to ensure an absolutely crushing defeat of the enemy. His ship was the Victory, Collingwood's the Royal Sovereign; in the fleet was a Dreadnought, since become so familiar a name in the British navy. There were two dozen ships besides. On 21st October, with all his plans complete, and every danger reckoned with or guarded against so far as was humanly possible, full and confidential details supplied to his friend and colleague, Admiral Collingwood, Nelson placed himself at the head of a column of fourteen ships, and Collingwood similarly at the head of the remaining thirteen ships, in full battle array.

[&]quot;Nobly, nobly Cape St Vincent to the north-west died away; Sunset ran, one glorious blood-red, reeking into Cadiz Bay;

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Bluish 'mid the burning water, full in face Trafalgar lay; In the dimmest north-east distance dawned Gibraltar grand and grey."

Nelson's admirals noticed that he was in good spirits, but quiet; eager for the contest, but not exhilarated, as at Aboukir Bay; resolved upon victory, but facing heavy loss and, himself, prepared for and expecting death. Their foe was strong and determined; its leader, Admiral Villeneuve, a master of stratagem and seamanship. Nelson asked Admiral Blackwood, when he came on board the flagship for final instructions: "What would you consider a victory?" He replied: "I should think it nothing less than glorious if we captured fourteen of their ships." Nelson pondered a moment and said: "I shall not be satisfied with less than twenty." Then soon he ran up his famous signal: "England expects every man to do his duty!" And a roar of acclamation rose from ship after ship. We read that Nelson was wearing his full admiral's uniform, and four gleaming orders shone on his breast. His officers longed to beg him to wear some plainer dress, since he formed a conspicuous mark for the picked shots placed high in the rigging of the French ships. But none dared ask him, as once previously he had shown great anger at the suggestion that honourable distinctions should be hidden on account of personal peril. They did, however, venture to beg him not to lead the line, so that his ship need not bear the brunt of the enemy's fire; and to this he agreed. But he sailed on with the Victory's rigging fully set, so that no ship could pass him!

Then might be seen Collingwood's line moving on swiftly, relentlessly; straight at the middle of the

enemy's line of ships and forcing a way through, then turning and firing a broadside into the Santa Anna, while each of the oncoming vessels made straight for a French or Spanish ship. The French admiral centred his chief efforts on the Victory. A rattle of musketry from the rigging of French ships and a booming cannonade were kept up with the British flagship and her commander as target. When Nelson decided to return the blow (and this was after his secretary and fifty men were killed) he made for the French Redoutable; and, after meeting one furious broadside, was too close to have further fire. Captain Harvey supported him with the Téméraire, attacking the Redoutable on the other side, and meanwhile the Victory was in between that ship and the great Santissima Trinidad, "my old West India friend," as Nelson called her.

After two hours' fighting nineteen of the French fleet of thirty-three had hauled down their colours: but a shot from the mizen-mast of the Redoutable had struck Nelson's shoulder, tearing off his epaulette. He fell to the deck and, as he was lifted up, said to the captain: "They have done for me at last, Hardy!" And so it proved. Borne tenderly down below, where lay many of his wounded crew, he insisted that he should wait his turn, and ordered the surgeon to leave him and see to the poor fellows who had been brought down before him. Meanwhile, overhead were heard occasional shouts of joy, and the dying hero smiled faintly as each rang out. Soon news was brought to him that the victory was assured; he murmured: "I wish I had not left the deck, for I shall soon be gone." His last words were: "Thank God I have done my

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duty!" Within an hour of his death the battle of Trafalgar was over. Besides the nineteen French ships whose colours were hauled down as a signal of defeat, one was burnt; so that the loss to the foe was the twenty that Nelson had desired. The *Redoutable* was one; and ever since its name has been handed down in the British navy. The Spanish admiral died of his wounds; Villeneuve, the French admiral, was taken prisoner and brought to England; the French navy was practically destroyed, and thus the supremacy of Great Britain at sea was completely established. The conquerors lost their greatest seaman, and about 1600 men besides.

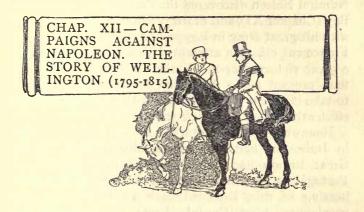
It is interesting to note the great difference between then and now in the matter of receiving intelligence of important events abroad. We read that it took more than two weeks for the news of the great victory to reach the Admiralty in London. It was brought to the capital from Dover (whence it had been taken by sailing boat from the scene of the battle) by a naval officer, who travelled "post," in about ten hours. The great news did not reach the northern part of the country, or remote villages, for more than six weeks. To-day the visitor to St James's Park, observing the great "wireless" standards on the roof of the Admiralty buildings, and inquiring their use, would learn that by means of wireless telegraphy "my lords" of the Admiralty would be informed hour by hour, indeed almost moment by moment, of the progress of a battle in the eastern Mediterranean.

No further honours could be offered to Nelson; but a public funeral and a tomb in St Paul's Cathedral expressed the sorrow of Britain for one of her greatest

sons. It is the fate of most battleships to be "scrapped" when their day is over; but the *Victory* stays moored in Portsmouth harbour, carefully preserved as a memorial of the great conflict and its successful issue.



Union Jack, established 1801



E have seen (Chapter VIII) how the revolutionizing energy of France led her, after transforming her own Government, to challenge other European states, and, finally, to place herself under a military Dictator, Napoleon Buonaparte. The year 1795 saw the establishment in France of the Directory—a body or committee selected from the councils set up by the Convention—and General Buonaparte was sent with a large army to confront the Austrians and drive them out of Italy. In this he succeeded, and marched on toward Vienna, compelling terms of peace in the Treaty of Campo Formio, which ceded Belgium and Lombardy to France.

In 1798 Buonaparte had developed the ambition of founding an empire in the East. For this he resolved to approach India by conquering Egypt and Syria; and the Directory, half afraid of his energy,

sanctioned the expedition. But it was unsuccessful: Admiral Nelson discovered the French fleet in Aboukir Bay (Chapter XI), and destroyed it, leaving Buonaparte with his great army in Egypt, and communication with France cut off. He attempted to seize Syria, winning a great victory over the Turks at Mount Tabor. He then pressed on to Acre, and besieged it, but failed to take it, as Sir Sydney Smith with a small squadron efficiently helped in its defence.

Meanwhile the Directory had continued the war in Italy, but had been successfully resisted; whilst Great Britain had united with Austria, Russia and Portugal in an alliance against France. Buonaparte, hearing of this, hastened back to France and was proclaimed First Consul. From that time he was supreme: a military dictator of a people who had found the feudal yoke of an aristocracy and a monarchy too galling for them. Through jealousies amongst the generals of the allies, Russia fell away from the united powers, and this gave Buonaparte reason to think that Great Britain would welcome proposals of peace. Haughtily ignoring the Government, he made direct overtures to King George himself; but they were not accepted. Then the Austrians were signally defeated in North Italy by the French army under Buonaparte at Marengo and all Italy fell into his hands. Thus Great Britain, with Portugal as a friendly ally, was left alone to continue the active resistance to the encroachments of France. The next year (1801) a treaty of peace between France and Austria at Luneville fixed the boundary of France at the Rhine and recognized Buonaparte as ruler of the French nation.

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Incited by Russia, the Northern European powers, Sweden and Denmark, adopted the plan of "armed neutrality" of twenty years earlier; and the three enforced the Berlin Decrees against British trade in the Baltic. That able statesman, Canning, at once equipped and despatched an expedition thither to demand a surrender of the Danish fleet lest it should be put at the service of France. This was refused, and then followed the bombardment of Copenhagen, the capital. In this action Nelson showed his capacity, and supplemented Admiral Sir Hyde Parker's tactics by pressing the Danish fleet so hard that they were forced to surrender. During the same year a British force attacked the French army left at Alexandria and defeated them. So that in 1802 there had been several rebuffs for France at sea, and terms of peace were agreed upon in the Treaty of Amiens.

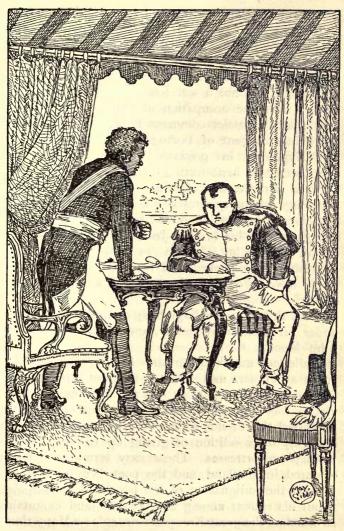
It was impossible, however, that peace could be permanent with Buonaparte master of Western Europe. Four years later French troops occupied Prussia; Louis Buonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was made King of Holland; Jerome, another brother, King of Westphalia, and yet another, Joseph, King of Naples, whilst Napoleon declared himself Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine and annexed Switzerland. The British Government had previously refused to give up Malta (which had been one of the terms of the treaty), and this gave Buonaparte an opportunity for declaring war; so for eleven years, with scarcely a pause, the bitter contest between Great Britain and France continued.

There were four phases of the war: the first, 1804-1805, showed Buonaparte, now entitled Napoleon, First Emperor of the French and King of Italy intent on

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conquering Great Britain by invading England. The second, 1806-1807, saw Napoleon master of Prussia and attacking Russia on the Baltic; whilst the British allies failed to give prompt assistance. The story goes that the Tsar Alexander, in a conference with Napoleon, assured him: "I hate the English as much as you do"; and the result was an alliance between France and Russia in the Treaty of Tilsit. The third phase, 1807-1812, is that of the "Continental System," when Napoleon changed his tactics and, by the Berlin Decrees, closed all European ports to British shipping. Instead of direct invasions a policy of economic pressure was attempted; the "nation of shopkeepers," as he contemptuously called the British, could be struck a dangerous blow through their trade. The instant retort of this country was the issue of the famous Orders in Council (that powerful supplement to Acts of Parliament), declaring all French ports to be in blockade, "and all vessels, unless sent from British ports, to be seizable as contraband." This was a very satisfactory stroke, since the British fleet commanded the seas; and then began the long series of high-handed and aggressive naval proceedings which so effectively checked European trade. Soon, Napoleon's conquered peoples began to be impatient with the hard conditions which resulted. The fourth phase, 1812-1815, was that of the Peninsular and Waterloo campaigns, when Wellington completed on land the victories achieved by Nelson at sea.

We will next consider the land war with which the name of this great soldier is connected. The Berlin Decrees, to be effective against British trade, must control the Mediterannean ports of Spain and Portugal. Portugal refused to give up her alliance with Great



"I hate the English as much as you do"

Britain, hence Napoleon sent an army into the country under Marshal Junot, and himself marched with another into Spain. De Bourrienne, the writer of The Memoirs of Napoleon, says: "The invasion of Portugal presented no difficulty; it was merely a warlike promenade, and not a war, but what events were connected with the occupation of that country!" Well might the chronicler comment thus; for immediately the Prince Regent of Portugal embarked for Brazil, and Napoleon, in pretended concert with Spain, announced that henceforth Portugal was to be divided between France and Spain. But, directly taking advantage of the quarrel between the King of Spain and his heir, he proclaimed the throne of Spain vacant and gave it to his brother Joseph; his brother-in-law, Murat, succeeding Joseph in Naples. Then the Spanish people awoke; and Napoleon found that he would have to conquer them as well as to annex the country.

Great Britain sent a large body of troops to Portugal under Sir Arthur Wellesley, and another under Sir

John Moore.

Wellesley, marching toward Lisbon, met Marshal Junot at Vimiera and defeated him, but through some misunderstanding between him and other generals, the victory was not pushed home. A convention at Cintra permitted the French general to retire to France with his army on condition of giving up Lisbon and the Portuguese fortresses. These easy terms were much resented in England, and the poet Wordsworth expressed the indignation of the people in a pamphlet. From his retreat among the Westmorland mountains he watched the great European struggle: "Many times

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have I gone from Allan Bank in Grasmere Vale to the Raise-Gap, as it is called (the crest of Dunmail Raise), so late as two o'clock in the morning to meet the carrier bringing the newspaper from Keswick." His indignant appeal stirred many of his countrymen to enthusiasm, and men began to wonder how it was that hitherto Napoleon had found his European conquests so easy. A monarch deposed, an army defeated, and all was over; in Portugal and Spain alone, besides Great Britain, was there any popular feeling behind the armed resistance.

The unwisdom of permitting "a retreat that was so like a victory" was soon apparent in Napoleon's movements; collecting immense forces of cavalry and artillery, heading one contingent himself, and placing another under Marshal Soult, he entered Madrid. The Junta, as the committee of the national party was called, looked to the British allies for help, and Moore, who had been given supreme command in Portugal, sought to entrap the French to pursue him whilst Wellesley's force struck a decisive blow.

Wild stories of the enormous preparations made by Napoleon spread over the Peninsula, enough to take the heart out of any opponents not prepared to resist to the uttermost; and when Napoleon put himself in pursuit of Moore, the angry despot used every man and every device to crush the daring foe. The French came up with the British force at Corunna, and, though it repulsed the attack, the gallant leader fell and was hastily buried ere the march was resumed.

In the next year Great Britain made a treaty of alliance with Spain, or at least with the Junta, and

placed the command of the new army sent to Portugal in the hands of Sir Arthur Wellesley. Realizing that it was easier to approach Portugal than Spain, he planned to assemble his forces in the former country and thus compel Napoleon to divide his army whilst engaged in overcoming Spain. Marshal Soult was at Oporto, and the British troops dislodged him and marched into Spain, meeting a contingent of the French army at Talavera. The British were victorious, though with great loss; and Sir Arthur was created Viscount Wellington.

He had intended to link his army with a Spanish force and march on to Madrid, but the able French general, Marshal Soult, had so cleverly disposed his forces that he was able not only to frustrate Wellington's intention but also to inflict heavy losses on his troops as they withdrew. The sharp lesson taught the great British commander that he could not expect effective

support from the allied army of Spain.

Meanwhile Napoleon himself had had to leave Spain to deal with the situation created by Austria. Thinking to redress former injuries, that country now threw off the conditions of the Treaty of Luneville and took up arms against France. It was only after months of fighting that Napoleon proved himself victor, overcoming all Austrian opposition except that of the hardy mountaineers of Tyrol. The astounding sequel to the Treaty of Vienna, by which the conqueror gained much Austrian territory, was his marriage with the Princess Royal, daughter of the Emperor Francis Joseph. This termination to one part of his struggle enabled him to send his victorious troops to carry on his career of conquest in Spain. Soon they held Aragon, Anda-

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lusia and Castile; and their complete success seemed near at hand.

In order to ensure the defeat of Wellington, a French army of more than twice the number of British and Portuguese was sent against him, under Marshal Soult and Marshal Massena, two of Napoleon's most famous generals (1810). The British commander had been strongly fortifying his position to protect Lisbon; and the famous "Lines of Torres Vedras" stretched in threatening array beyond the expanse of wasted land through which the French troops had to march.

He hoped rather to starve out his pursuers than to overcome them in actual fighting; and thus he lured them forward by slowly retreating toward his great earthworks. At Busaco he turned and adopted the plan of open resistance, but as his numbers were quite insufficient for success in a prolonged engagement he resumed his gradual withdrawal. Then he securely entrenched himself behind his first line of fortifications, whilst the French army dwindled from starvation. When at length Massena ordered a retreat, Wellington's troops were on the alert to strike them in the rear, and, thus harassed and starved, the French losses amounted to over 30,000 men, without one pitched battle. The next spring (1811) saw the French driven from Portugal; though Wellington's idea of pursuing them right into Spain had to be suspended for a time. The winter saw both combatants waiting and watching for the next move on the other side.

As the British losses were not very speedily made good with fresh troops from home, the most skilful management was needed, no less than courage and dash, to maintain the force in fighting condition through months

of delay. The Portuguese army had been put under the command of a gallant Irish general named Beresford; and he trained them to be formidable antagonists in their own way. That was not so much by means of great combined movements, and dogged resistance to attack, as by spirited undertakings in small detachments, ingenious ambushes and daring surprises; the characteristics of guerrilla warfare. During the months of waiting, Wellington's forces, in spite of some losses, improved in capacity; the French deteriorated.

It had seemed that the militant ambition of France was insatiable; that no drain of money or men tempted her to forgo her aims; but as the time dragged on, though Napoleon was as determined as ever, it became increasingly difficult to supply him with fresh soldiers. Moreover, he had begun to plan a great campaign against Russia, whose support, in spite of the Treaty of Tilsit, had been but half-hearted; so that, in default of a new army from home, he withdrew several bodies of his troops from Spain. This gave Wellington his opportunity, and he attacked the two great frontier fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, held by the French (1812), and reduced them. Then he accomplished an utter defeat of the French at Salamanca, where it was said "he beat 40,000 men in forty minutes," and, marching on, regained Madrid. The losses of the French army were enormous, 7000 being captured and nearly 10,000 killed.

The ancient custom of actually seizing and holding captives of war was still maintained in the eighteenth century; so that the authorities at home had built a huge war prison on Dartmoor, in Devonshire, and there

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were confined hundreds of American and French soldiers. The officers were allowed limited freedom on parole; the men were confined in overcrowded cells and courtyards; and the system differed so far from that of a prison for criminals that communication was, to some extent, allowed with the outside world. The farmers of the neighbourhood, and their wives, drove a thriving trade in simple farm and dairy produce with the unfortunate occupants; indeed for many years Dartmoor Prison formed their most profitable market. Thus the English horror and hatred of the French, as represented by Napoleon and his hostile intentions, were much softened in the west of England through this direct contact with individual Frenchmen.

In August 1812 Joseph Buonaparte fled from his throne of Spain, and Wellington entered Madrid in triumph. Still the war was not over. Though many of the French troops had been transferred to Germany, now that Prussia had leagued herself with Russia against Napoleon, Joseph Buonaparte and Marshal Jourdain had 200,000 men at their disposal, while Wellington had not quite half that number. But he determined to make a strong direct attack on the foe; and drove the French before him to Vittoria, where he routed them in a great battle, and took 1000 prisoners.

These reverses led Napoleon to spare some of his own troops, under the gallant Marshal Soult, who set out to relieve Pampeluna, which Wellington was besieging. He did not succeed, for Wellington turned and struck the first blow, forcing the French back to Toulouse. This prolonged struggle lasted until April 1814; and whilst the British army was thus making

itself felt, the allied Austrian, Russian and Prussian armies had reached Paris and captured the city.

The beaten Emperor-General abdicated, and the Bourbons were restored to the French throne, in the person of Louis XVIII. The vanquished leader was given the duchy of Parma and the island of Elba; France and Italy were, it seemed, lost to him for ever, and as ruler of the humble population of that small island he was really a prisoner of war in honourable captivity. The great powers of Europe set about restoring the old boundaries of France, so ambitiously and ruthlessly extended by Napoleon; and all the countries that had been absorbed in his conquests were glad to accept the conditions laid down. They were formally ratified in the Treaty of Paris (1814), and thus the balance of power was once more restored in Europe.

Hardly was the treaty signed and published when the news arrived that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and had landed in France. The restored monarch, Louis XVIII, had failed to win his people's loyalty and devotion, in spite of the constitution granted. Some of the many malcontents had communicated with the exiled Buonaparte and had invited him to return. "The Hundred Days" expressively describes the brief period of his resumption of power.

The army had at once gone over to him, their idolized leader; Louis ignominiously fled; the scarcely established Bourbon order was swept away, and again Napoleon was Emperor, and again France was at his beck and call in her thirst for military glory. At once the great powers re-armed for the coming contest; though indeed Great Britain had not been able to

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disband her forces on account of the growing trouble in the United States, whose trade had been destroyed by the European contest. The allied European powers declared Napoleon "an outlaw, the enemy and disturber of the peace of the world"; and set about the renewal of the conflict with him.

Wellington, who, for his various successes, had been raised from viscount to earl, from earl to marquess,

and, in honour of his victory at Toulouse, given a dukedom, was placed in command of the allied armies from Great Britain, Holland, Hanover and Belgium; and was supported by a large body of Prussian troops under Marshal Blücher. The united forces amounted to about 225,000 men, but of Wellington's troops only a few were experienced fighters; whilst many of Napoleon's 120,000 were veterans, highly trained and confident in their leader. Also two of his most famous generals had



Bust of the Duke of Wellington

commands in his army, Marshal Ney and Marshal Soult. Wellington was occupying the plain before Brussels, with his headquarters in the city, and those of Blücher were at Namur.

The Peninsular campaigns had been carried on in the mountainous regions of Portugal and Spain; now a wide sweeping expanse of level country with only a few low hills was to be the scene of action. Napoleon's plan was to strike the first blow; and so swiftly he moved his troops and made the attack that he dislodged a Prussian outpost at Charleroi, and thus had passed the first barrier. He hoped to reach the

various parts of the allied armies before each was in close touch with the rest; and it seemed as though he was to be successful.

On the night of 15th June the Duchess of Richmond, in Brussels, gave a ball, which Wellington and many of his officers attended. Whilst the gaiety was at its height, news was brought of the advance of Napoleon, and, like Drake on the Hoe at Plymouth, Wellington and his captains left the "game" to meet the foe.

At Ligny the French troops had fallen upon the Prussians and compelled them to retreat with a loss of 10,000 men, and, though their own loss was much greater, they had gained an advantage. They then moved on toward Quatre Bras, the junction of the cross-roads between Brussels and Charleroi, and Nivelles and Ligny. This was on 17th June, and Wellington had to yield the position, as he had only some of his British troops there, with a contingent of Netherlanders. To the north lay the little village of Waterloo, and there the Prussian army, under Blücher, was to meet Wellington's main body. Then occurred an example of the skilful management and resolute determination which had won for the British leader the admiring nickname of the "Iron Duke."

It was a critical moment. Two ridges of green hills stretched east and west, between lay a shallow depression along which ran the two roads to Brussels; and here and there upon the gentle slopes were tiny hamlets and farms. This strip of Belgian country, with its characteristic lowland scenery and peaceful dwellings, was the scene of the final stage in the contest with "the destroyer of the peace of Europe." Henceforth its place-names and landmarks were to be

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familiar words throughout the civilized world. "La Haye Sainte," a farm; "Hougoumont," a country house; and the village of "La Haye," are for ever enshrined in history as the spots where grim defeat awaited the man who had set himself to conquer Great Britain. At the moment the gleaming massive arches, erected by his orders in Paris, were proclaiming that the "Grande Armée" were in readiness to invade England as the climax of their many European victories.

So quickly had events moved since February that in remote country districts of England people were hardly aware of Napoleon's exile in Elba before he had shaken himself free and marched with his armies into Belgium. Again there spread rumours of his speedy invasion of England; timid wayfarers expected to meet French troops along the country roads; the martello towers on the south-east coast were furnished and manned by day and night. Mothers hushed their fretful children into silence with threats of "Boney" seizing them if they were heard; the insolent conqueror had indeed become the "bogey-man" of Europe.

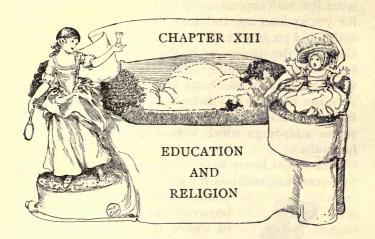
On the morning of Sunday, 18th June 1815, the decisive moment came. Wellington had massed his troops around Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte, and placed them in solid formation to resist attack rather than to act on the offensive. The French regiments of infantry, flanked by thundering cavalry, thought to rush the defence and entirely overwhelm the waiting ranks. But again and again their charge was met with a relentless fire of shot, and whenever they fell back they were followed by a furious bayonet charge. The Prussian allies, whose coming was anxiously watched for, presently attacked the French in the rear, and

slowly forced their way on toward the British. Napoleon's last determined attack was made by his splendid reserve of guards; massed in two formidable columns they advanced on the English troops, who lay and knelt in silent rows, grimly awaiting the word of command. Their general held them still till the last moment, and then, the order given, they fired a sudden volley and charged full into the advancing mass. It broke and fell away; the renowned Imperial Guard of France was reduced to confusion and could not rally in time to save the position. Their rout was completely accomplished as the Prussians joined the British main body, and thus was avenged in full the defeat of two days before at Ligny.

Once more Napoleon abdicated, and his brief glory of the Hundred Days was eclipsed for ever. Louis XVIII again wore the crown of France; the allied armies entered Paris in triumph; the fallen Emperor gave up his sword and was conveyed on board the British battleship *Bellerophon* to the distant island of St Helena as a prisoner. There, after six years

of restless captivity, he died.

A second Treaty of Paris guaranteed the relation of France to the rest of Europe; and one of the terms of the agreement was the restoration to the various governments of the art treasures of which Napoleon had plundered the European capitals to enrich and adorn Paris.



T is difficult to realize that in the eighteenth century there were hardly any schools, and in those that existed very little was taught. For the sons of the wealthy there were the great public schools— Eton, Harrow, Winchester, Westminster-and a few others attached to the cathedrals, as St Paul's in London, the King's School at Canterbury and St Peter's School at York. There were also scattered over the country certain "Grammar" schools, as they were called, most of them foundations dating from Tudor times, when they replaced some of the ancient monastery schools. In the better ones a good deal of Latin and some Greek were learned by the more intelligent and hard-working boys; but the average pupil left school knowing but very little, and generally hating everything connected with lessons. This is not to be wondered at if we remember that books

were few and expensive, that hardly any were written for young learners, and that the cane was the most active and prominent object in the school. From more than one frontispiece of books of the time it would seem that the ordinary schoolmaster used to teach with the book in one hand and the cane in the other. A smart sting on hands or head visited any mistake, failure or inattention, to say nothing of the formal, severe whippings which were administered at longer intervals.

The school hours were long, and included no time for recreation, still less for games, except in the great



London Shoeblack,

public schools. In summer work began at five in the morning, and in winter at six, with breaks for meals at eight and twelve, and supper and bed at six. It was generally believed that no child could love learning, and that his reluctance must be overcome with punishments. In the case of the poor there was hardly any provision for children's education, and they began to work at the early age of eight. In the country they were set to scare birds, or mind sheep,

or weed amongst the growing crops, and in towns, during the latter years of the century, they were drafted into factories and mines. Also one of the most exacting kinds of child labour was that of sweeping chimneys. Small boys were set actually to climb the wide, open chimneys, narrowing so uncomfortably toward the top, and brush in hand to dislodge the choking soot. We read

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that in 1803 an association was formed "for improving the situation of infant chimney-sweepers."

Toward the end of the eighteenth century there was some attempt made to place the beginnings of education within reach of the poor by employing aged women or invalided men, who were unfit for any other kind of work, to teach reading and the rudiments of counting to the children in the large, straggling These "Dame" schools, as they were called, were the humble predecessors of our present County Council Schools, and in them, for a few months in the year, a few little children of both sexes had a small share in the privileges which their more fortunate successors enjoy so fully. We may picture one of these dame schools: a form or two set on a stone-flagged floor, and on them a row of girls and boys uneasily sitting, delightfully crowded together, but in peril of slipping over or under as they crane their necks to see the horn-book which has to be shared by three or four at once. This, with the exception of a Bible, was often the only "book" the school possessed. It consisted of a piece of wood on a handle, shaped like a battledore and under a thin layer of transparent horn might be read, on the one side, the alphabet in capital and small letters, the ten digits and some easy syllables, and on the other the Lord's Prayer, the Creed and the Gloria.

The girls' schools were even fewer than those for boys, and though, perhaps, punishments were less severe, they were a prominent part of the school course.

Partly as discipline, and partly in the belief that it would lead to an erect carriage, girls had to wear, for an hour at a time, a shoulder-board strapped securely

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behind them to prevent stooping. The dunce's cap, and various undignified and absurd labels of large size, such as a red tongue, had to be worn by the offenders standing mounted on a bench. Reading and writing were formidable tasks, the difficulties of which were hardly surmounted on leaving school. They were considered quite brilliant girls of seventeen who could compose and write a satisfactory letter, with nearly correct spelling, and keep such accounts as the mistress of a household needed to control. The teaching of arithmetic was singularly backward, and thus it became a subject enshrouded in mystery. In schools it was generally in the hands of the writingmaster, and all the processes were learnt by rote, with no attempt to understand or explain them. They seem to have been looked upon as clever dodges, and the worker who could best remember and apply them, one after another, was apt to shine as the most successful.

There may be found in a few educational museums and other collections, examples of the arithmetic books designed in the eighteenth century for young learners and others. Their curiously florid titles contrast oddly with the business-like brevity of a text-book of to-day. The Handmaid to Arithmetic refined was one; The Necessary Art made most Easie was another; Pleasure with Profit; Consisting of Recreations Numericall, still another. The famous Cocker's Arithmetic had appeared in the first year of the century. Its quaint announcement has amused generations of students of a later day: "A plain and familiar method suitable to the meanest capacity for the full understanding of that incomparable art"; but only a few of the schools would be enterprising enough to possess it. Toward

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the end of the century there appeared, A Compleat Treatise on Arithmetick in Verse, and in Chappell's Universal Arithmetic, 1798, the multiplication table was enlivened by little ditties, as:

"So five times eight were forty Scots
Who came from Aberdeen,
And five times nine were 'forty-five'
Which gave us all the spleen."

Geography was taught by means of globes instead of the maps and charts so usual to-day, and in some ways the older method is the better. "The Use of the Globes" was a sentence that figured on many genteel prospectuses far into the nineteenth century. The elder girls read extracts from prose authors, and especially from poetry, in books of selections, and, though the knowledge was scrappy, it was possible to have some familiarity with good literature. Classical mythology was a favourite subject in girls' schools, and the study of it was accepted as a stamp of gentility similar to that conferred in later years by French and the pianoforte. Not that accomplishments were neglected; the spinet and the harp were fashionable musical instruments, and the "musical glasses" were not despised. Wax flowers and fruit for drawing-room ornaments were a form of "modelling"; woolwork on canvas, of which the sampler is the humble representative, occupied busy fingers in a sort of miniature tapestry; and in its most elaborate forms woolwork was devoted to flower-making, and strange bouquets were cherished under glass cases. Besides these there was also taught plain needlework, and the schoolgirl of the eighteenth century spent more

hours a day in this occupation than her active successor of the present time spends in a week.

In spite of the extreme unpopularity of French things during the greater part of the century, we find that the French language continued to be taught in the schools for young ladies, although its acquirement did not seem to have any bearing upon some future travels abroad. In the case of young men of good



family, foreign travel was considered a necessary finish to their education, and they made the Grand Tour of the principal cities on the Continent in the charge of a tutor. Both boys and girls learned to dance, and the century is distinguished for the grace and dignity of this art. From the time-tables of the schools this form of physical exercise appears to be the only one which had any encouragement. It

Coffee-po

was, too, one of the few refining influences in a rough age; and our ancestors stood much in need of it. There was no occasion for satisfaction with either home intercourse or table manners; and it is not surprising that the few who, like the famous Lord Chesterfield, tried to set the fashion of more restrained behaviour, and greater politeness, went to the other extreme and counselled an excessive use of apology and compliment which was at once fussy and insincere.

We see this reflected in the school letters of the period. A carefully worded composition, beginning: "Honoured Parents" and drifting into the distance of the third person in its progress, ending: "Theirs very dutifully in filial regard," would be given out by the preceptor to be copied by each pupil. Ordinary greetings between parents and children, and between friends,

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were either artificial and stilted, or else curt and unfeeling. The harshness of the home life of British children was often commented upon by foreign visitors, and certainly we might have looked in vain for the happy occasions of, or opportunities for, sympathy which modern children enjoy.

The biographies of some of the distinguished women of the eighteenth century throw light upon the general standard of education for girls. Amongst the most notable are those of Fanny Burney, afterwards Madame d'Arblay, Hannah More, and Mary Somerville. Fanny Burney, the quiet youngest daughter of Dr Burney, scholar and music lover, was taught to read and write by one of her elder sisters, and apparently had no further direct teaching. But she was a studious little person and, being motherless, was sometimes privileged to sit on her stool in a quiet corner of her father's study and hear his conversation with his friends. Amongst these were several of the best-known scholars and notabilities of London, including the learned Dr Johnson and the actor, Garrick. In listening to their discussions, literary, philosophical and political, Fanny Burney must often have failed to understand anything. But to her eager, thoughtful temperament this was stimulus enough, so that we find her writing stories full of observation and quiet humour when other girls of her age were stumbling through the spelling-book and the polite letter-writer.

Hannah More was an equally vigorous and determined student. Her father was the master of a Gloucestershire Grammar School, and when quite a little girl Hannah found the sonorous Latin syllables and the arithmetic of the boys' lessons far more interesting than

her own copy-book and woolwork. Often she was sent from a corner of the classroom, where she hid, an eager listener, back to "more ladylike" studies. Her only formal teaching seems to have been that given by the eldest of the five More sisters, who, on her return from boarding-school, was governess to the younger ones. With such spirited and independent girls, we are not surprised to find them soon opening a girls' school or seminary for young ladies, at Bristol, and making it a great success. In later years Hannah More became a member of the famous society of learned ladies which enlivened the London of her day, but she differed from some of them in having a foundation of lovingly acquired knowledge beneath the surface fashion of glib



Bristol Glass Cruets, Eighteenth Century

criticism. Presently we find her retired to a country village, and there devoting her energies to forming a school for the ignorant girls and rough lads of the place, who were sadly in need of civilizing. Her next task was the writing of simple moral Tales for Young People. Thus she was one of the pioneers of the juvenile literature which to-day has so wide and varied a range.

The third name, Mary Somerville, is that of a woman who ranks as one of the most competent astronomers of the age; though as a child she had no better

or wider opportunities of learning than the average girl. She was taught to read at home and, at the age of ten, was sent to boarding school for a year to learn to write and to keep accounts. She describes the backboard, which was part of the physical equipment of the pupils; "shoulders drawn back till

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the blades met; a steel collar attached to a rod; this was fixed under the chin," and worn through the long school hours. Her principal work was to learn columns of spelling from the great Dr Johnson's Dictionary, and to write and "cipher." With this one year's school teaching Mary entered on the pathway of learning. Later, at the mature age of thirteen, she was given lessons in music and ornamental writing, and began to teach herself Latin. This was followed by algebra and geometry and, presently, by Greek; all from books printed in hard crabbed characters, with nothing made easy for beginners. Fortunately for Mary, the city of Edinburgh then, as ever since, had a deserved reputation for scholarship; and it was her happy privilege to be connected with men great in science and letters. Thus she became a student and investigator, taking astronomy for her special subject, toward which her early taste for mathematics had led her.

The names and attainments of these gifted women serve to show that the able and diligent worker can do without many of the aids which most learners need; but for these the eighteenth century was a hard and barren time. An advertisement of a school for girls in a newspaper of 1774 runs thus: "At Buckingham, a pleasant and healthy situation, the Boarding School for Young Ladies, by Mrs Whitney and proper assistants, will be continued on the following terms:—Entrance, £1, 1s.; Board, Washing, Reading, Plain and Fine Needlework, £12, 12s. a year. Writing, 5s. a quarter. Dancing, 10s. 6d. a quarter. Entrance for ditto, 10s. 6d. Tea and Sugar for the year if required, £1, 1s." A similar establishment in Finsbury Square, London, is able to offer the inducement that the

principal has a key of the gardens, in which "the young ladies will walk as weather and convenience permit."

An equal indifference was felt about religion and spiritual things. As low aims marked the political thought of the early years of our period, so the Church authorities had no higher conceptions. Many clergymen held two or three benefices, which they could not possibly serve effectually, and but little religious teaching was given in any class of society. The rich and privileged were following the evil example of frivolity set in the later Stuart period, the merchants and trading classes were absorbed in getting rich; the intellectual and intelligent were sceptical and cold, and the poorer people were rough and barbarous. The clergy of the Established Church had largely become easy-going officials instead of earnest pastors and devoted teachers. If they were townsmen they had their cultivated pursuits like other educated men. if holding country livings they were parsons on Sunday, but hunting squires or hard-working farmers all the week.

Yet amongst them stand out a few examples of saintly scholarship: the good Bishop Wilson, the learned Bishop Butler and the mystic, William Law. The latter's Serious Call was to be found on many family bookshelves far into the nineteenth century. Outside the ranks of the clergy there were also a few men of devoted life and religious enthusiasm, amongst them Wilberforce and Clarkson, the great apostles of freedom for slaves, and John Howard, the prison reformer. But the general deadness and apathy was chiefly stirred by the spirit and labour of the Brothers

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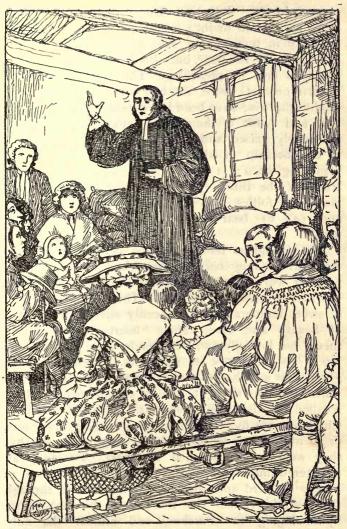
Wesley, in the religious revival known as Methodism. This movement, which, like so many others, originated at Oxford, was led by three young men, John and Charles Wesley, and George Whitefield. The name was given them in flippant comment on account of the Rule of Life, with its serious occupations and frequent prayers, which they mapped out, and, like some other famous nicknames, was retained, and became a title of honour. To their personal devotions the little band added the pious offices of caring for the poor and teaching children, and the performance of good deeds done regularly and without ostentation. They so far succeeded in communicating their own fervour that a breathing of spiritual life and devotional energy was once again felt thoughout the land.

Unfortunately the authorities of the Church frowned on these missionaries; and though the Wesleys had taken orders, and had hoped to win to their cause all the younger clergy, only a few supported them. Hence the office of preacher was chiefly held by laymen, and this made the division from the Church organization the more marked. But John Wesley, the leader, and his brother, considered themselves clergymen of the Church of England, and for many years his band of nearly one hundred travelling preachers were careful never to hold their meetings at the same hours as those of the Church services. With sorrow and dismay the brothers found themselves shut out from every pulpit, and thus they were driven to adopt as the places for their worship the village greens, the open spaces at the cross-roads or, under favouring circumstances, the large hay barns of friendly farmers. Though hurt at the reception given to his efforts by bishops and clergy

of the Church, John Wesley permitted himself to express no resentment or bitterness. With a half-humorous, half-ironical fervour, when his services were opposed by the resident vicar, he exclaimed: "All the world is my parish!" And, indeed, he journeyed throughout the length and breadth of the land on horseback, by main roads and byways, mountain tracks and rough farm lanes; often with the reins on his horse's neck, and reading hard, meditating, praying or singing all along the way. Thus he visited the large ironworking and manufacturing towns, the rough mining villages, the tiny fishing hamlets, and the lonely rural homesteads of Georgian England.

Men and women of all classes and degrees were drawn into the movement, and its emotional fervour spread into many lives and moved numberless hearts. This was especially the case in the western districts, where there remained a stronger Celtic element in the population. The ideal of personal holiness and devotion to Christ, which was to raise the whole life and consecrate all labour, brought sweetness and joy into many lives which had little in them of material satisfaction. Indeed it is largely to the influence of the Wesleyan Methodist movement that we may attribute the peaceful accomplishment of the great industrial revolution, and the softening of the spirit of bitterness which in France worked such disaster. People became touched with the reality of heavenly things, and found their chief happiness in meeting together to sing and pray and hear the travelling preachers.

A fine picture of the influence at work in a country village is given in George Eliot's great novel, *Adam Bede.* A feature of the movement, which also we



John Wesley preaching

observe in the "Salvation Army" of to-day, was the large part taken in its evangelistic work by women; not only in tending the sick, teaching the children, and caring for the poor, but also in leading the prayer meetings and in preaching. Thus many poor and forlorn outcasts were reached and influenced who might otherwise have been left outside; and the whole tone and habit of home life among the poor was immensely raised and spiritualized. The conditions of membership of the Wesleyan body had in its beginning been: (I) the practice of prayer, (2) the study of the Bible, (3) a resolved attempt to avoid vices and follies, and to practise Christian virtues, and (4) to bear in patience the reproach of men.

Some religious reformers have become harsh and fanatical as they became more and more absorbed in their work, but the Brothers Wesley had little of the narrow austerity of such. They were both men of sweet temperament and keenly alive to the appeal of beauty and love. Their "hearts burned within them," but lovingly and with tenderness; they felt the joy of goodness, not its restraints. Then both were gifted men with happy turns of speech to express their warm, vigorous thought, and an ear for melody which recalled a vanishing English trait. Both, but especially Charles, wrote hymns and set them to fine simple airs, or to well-known ballad and folk-song tunes, so that they were readily learned by heart. To many an unlettered man and woman the first perception of beauty in word and sound must have come through the revival hymns. For those were the days before hymn-singing in churches, and almost the only

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examples of sacred songs were the metrical versions of the Psalms by Tate and Brady.

This influence spread far beyond the ranks of the Methodists themselves, and partly restored to the nation the old gift of singing for which, two or three centuries before, they had been justly famed. Another great result of the Methodist rule was the widespread knowledge of the Scriptures. Not only for doctrine and counsel, but also for inspiration and happiness, the habit was formed of turning to the Bible. Its depth of thought and beauty of language, its fine expression of human needs and human aspiration, its dignified simplicity and restraint became familiar to hundreds of ordinary men and women, and toned and moulded their own thought and speech.

Although John Wesley always held himself a member of the English Church, yet the great and flourishing organization, which his love and devotion founded, at his death severed itself completely from the National Church, rejected its episcopate, its liturgy and its ceremonies, and established its own governing body, synods and formularies. Unlike the Independents, the ancestors of the modern Congregationalists, the Wesleyans broke from the Church rather on points of religious practice than on those of doctrine; and the ardour and devotion of their founders make it ever to be regretted that such service and love for souls had to find scope outside her bounds.

The same indifference and sluggishness which marked the ordinary education and religion of the period was to be found also in the universities. It was fashionable for the young men of the upper classes

to go to Oxford or Cambridge, but, unless they were resolutely studious, they learned but little. The heads of houses and the professors gave but few lectures, and cared for little but the elegant leisure of their One only of the old monastic rules remained, that all the dons should be unmarried. thus, spared the anxieties and bilities of home life, and without the refining and restraining influence of women, they easily sank into the slothful ease and self-indulgence of the commonroom, with its fondness for good eating and much drinking which characterized the wealthy life of the times. The young men under their charge did very



Wine Glass, Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries

much as they liked, and, though riotous amusements were nominally forbidden, they were very generally pursued. For indoor recreations there were gambling and drinking; for outdoor, cockfighting, prize-fighting by professional pugilists, and driving "post" to London. The poet Gray, who was an undergraduate at Peterhouse, Cambridge, found that rough practical jokes were much in favour with his companions, and being himself a quiet and rather melancholy

youth, he came to be the miserable butt of their senseless fun. The window is still shown through which he descended into a butt of water, having been aroused in the night by a false alarm of fire raised by a boisterous party of undergraduates. Samuel Johnson was at Pembroke College, Oxford, and to this intellectual giant even the best and finest scholarship acquired there seemed paltry and trifling. Gibbon, the illustrious author of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, was at Oxford nearly thirty years later than Johnson,

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and had an equally low opinion of its studies and attainments.

Political feeling ran high, and at Oxford the sympathy of the university was, in the early part of the century, Jacobite and Tory; at Cambridge Whig sentiment prevailed. The anniversary of George I's birthday in the year of his accession was the occasion of a great riot between "gown" and "town"; and later, when the colleges ignored the celebration of the birthday of the Prince of Wales and pelted a royal regiment as they "trooped the colour," the disloyalty of that university was debated upon in Parliament. In 1715 the Government sent a regiment of cavalry into quarters at Oxford as a reminder of authority; and this, contrasted with the gift from the Crown to Cambridge of a famous library, formed the subject of a witty epigram of the time:

"The King, observing with judicious eyes
The wants of his two universities,
To Oxford sent a troop of horse; and why?
That learned body wanted loyalty.
To Cambridge books he sent, as well discerning
How much that loyal body wanted learning."

Immediately there was rapped out the brilliant repartee:

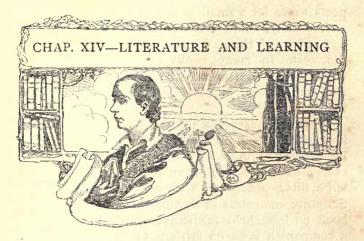
"The King to Oxford sent a troop of horse, For Tories own no argument but force; With equal care to Cambridge books he sent, For Whigs admit no force but argument."

One reason which contributed greatly to the low esteem in which learning was held at the universities

was the marked divisions of class observed. Wealthy young men entered as "gentlemen-commoners" and pursued a life of frivolous amusement unrebuked. Youths of lesser means entered as "sizars," or dependents, having food in hall as an equivalent for services rendered in waiting on the more fortunate undergraduates. Though this was democratic in theory, it led to a standard of life being set up by the rich to which others could not attain, and made it quite impossible for diligent young men to share in pleasures, or for idle youths to be shamed into industry. Toward the end of the century there was a little awakening and, in common with the fashion in London, many clubs for political discussion were formed. In these some young men learned the practice of oratory for which they became famous in after years in Parliament



Brass Candlestick



HE literature of our period has many points of interest. Some of the chief are:

 In it books began to be plentiful and readers many.

2. To it belongs the rise of the Novel, the favourite form of Fiction.

3. In it were written several great works, including the greatest History.

4. During those years the English language became moulded to fine Prose, which hitherto had been inferior to English Verse.

5. At its close there arose a new School of Poetry, whose spirit has greatly influenced modern thought.

1. Until midway through this period there had been no general reading public, still less a public to purchase books. Few people could read, and very few read for either inspiration or amusement. Hence authors and

P

poets wrote for a small world of sympathetic patrons, and, usually, could only publish new works when a number of those friends had subscribed toward the cost. In many books of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries may be seen a list of patrons and subscribers, followed by the author's letter of thanks.

In most households the stock of books was very limited: Fox's Book of Martyrs, a work whose grim horrors seized the imagination of the people as few others have done; Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress; a large Bible, perhaps with curious illustrations showing Scripture characters in eighteenth-century costume; a book on household medicine; and if in the country a companion book on farriery, or farm management; these, with the yearly almanac, almost completed the list. Few modern readers are aware of the stores of curious information the last-named volumes contained.

In a time when nearly all the people of these islands lived in villages, many details of the seasons, the phases of the moon and the tides, the promising dates for gardening and field operations, of which townspeople are contentedly ignorant, were matters of importance, and were eagerly sought out. Other subjects treated made almanacs mysteriously valuable. For instance, the slow substitution of astronomy for astrology, and the slower development of alchemy into physics and chemistry, permitted much strange lore of the influence of the stars upon human lives, and the peculiar properties of metals and liquids and their secret values, to appear side by side with agricultural advice. Sometimes, too, they unblushingly took up

the mantle of prophecy, and foretold storms and startling occurrences, or gave warning of pestilences and wars.

Some readers of this book may have seen and handled dark, heavily bound volumes of eighteenth-century literature and noticed the close printing on the discoloured pages, with the recurring long s, so confusingly like f, and the lonely word at the bottom of each right-hand page to enable the unskilful reader to turn over without stopping.

Then, too, the functions of publisher and printer, now almost rigidly divided, were combined, as the titlepages of many curious little books show, much as in the days of Milton. During the transition time from the private patron to the reading public there was an interval during which enterprising publisher-printers brought out books in the hope of finding purchasers. They employed needy authors, and most authors were needy, to write for them. Thus appeared the famous Dictionary compiled by Dr Johnson, and in the same way were produced most of the few books which could be classed as school-books.

In this period there first began to be written books intended for children, mostly instructive and designed to lessen the difficulty of learning to read. One such, in 1743, bore the attractive title, The Child's New Plaything, and was dedicated to Prince George, afterwards George IV. Some alphabets of the "A was an Archer" kind, and easy syllables, led up to an unexciting little moral story about two dogs, one gentle, the other quarrelsome. A few years later appeared one modestly called The Child's Best Instructor, on similar lines, with simply told moral tales for learning to read; and many

schoolmasters brought out books intended to simplify

the teaching of Latin to their pupils.

Standing out and distinguished from these dreary volumes are two or three story-books which, though they were not written for children, became afterwards part of the children's heritage. Such were Defoe's Robinson Crusoe and Swift's Gulliver's Travels, which, with the long religious arguments of the one and the political insults of the other left out, have delighted and enthralled generations of children.

That charming writer, Oliver Goldsmith, had a great desire to write for children, and in the days of his hardest struggle with poverty he is believed to have written *Goody Two Shoes*, or, to give it the more digni-

fied title, Mistress Margery Two Shoes.

A famous bookseller, John Newbery, led the way in providing books for children. During those dull thirty years, 1720-1750, when, as has been said, there were far fewer books than in the preceding century, this energetic trader opened a bookshop in St Paul's Churchyard, the sign being "The Bible and Sun," intending to combine the sale of books with that of drugs and "cures," as he had done at Reading. A curious list of things belonging to this side of the business shows that our eighteenth-century ancestors were as credulous of things medical, usually known as "quack nostrums," as are our present townspeople. By degrees Mr Newbery's books and publishing far outweighed his druggist side, with the exception of the "fever powder" of a noted West End physician, which was a most valuable property to those in the secret of its preparation.

This early publisher was a capital man of business, and was one of the first to practise the delicate art of

announcement, soon to be known as advertisement. Judging from the way in which the art has developed, it is safe to say that our publisher was eminently successful. In *The Morning Post* of 18th June 1844 appeared the following notice:—

"According to Act of Parliament (neatly bound and gilt) a Little Pretty Pocket Book intended for the instruction and amusement of little Master Tommy

and pretty Miss Polly; with an agreeable letter to each from Jack the Giant Killer; as also a Ball and a Pincushion, the use of which will infallibly make Tommy a good boy and Polly a good girl. To the whole is prefixed a letter on education humbly addressed to



Chairs, George I and II

all parents, guardians, governesses, etc., wherein rules are laid down for making their children strong, healthy, virtuous, wise, and happy."

Twenty-five years later an even more curious advertisement appeared in *The London Chronicle*, in its

last number for the year 1765:

"The Philosophers, Politicians, Necromancers and the learned in every faculty are desired to observe that on the 1st of January, being New Year's Day (oh that we may all lead new lives!) Mr Newbery intends to publish the following important volumes, bound and gilt, and hereby invites all his little friends who are

good to call for them at the Bible and Sun in St Paul's Churchyard, but those who are naughty to have none."

In the list were Fables in Verse, Blossoms in Morality and Little Goody Two Shoes.

Newbery led the way in bringing out lesson-books for children with the subjects made easier, and indeed he seems to have anticipated the "Reading without Tears" system. For besides actual books he produced "A sett of fifty-four squares, with cuts and Directions for playing with them, newly invented for the use of Children. By which alone, or with very little assistance they may learn to Spell, Read, Write, make Figures, and cast up any common sum in Arithmetic, before they are old enough to be sent to school, and that by way of Amusement and Diversion." In spite of this condescension, however, most of the books written for children were of a grave and forbidding nature, consisting largely of narratives in which the minor faults of girls and boys were shown to have painful and disastrous effects and the minor virtues a quite striking amount of praise. Some which were intended to be instructive were written in the forms of a dialogue, or question and answer. In the former the pupil seemed to show a most unusual thirst for knowledge, pursuing the subject with endless appropriate and searching questions, whilst in the latter the information was wont to be conveyed in the question. "What Roman emperor projected an invasion of Britain, gathered only shells upon the shore, and then returned to Rome in triumph?" Answer: "Caligula, in the year 40."

Learning was believed to be so unpalatable that nearly all educational books tried to disguise it in

some way, though to us the ways seem tedious and vexing.

Everyone is aware of the great number of magazines and periodicals which exist to-day, many of them either frivolous or illiterate, but this branch of literature passed through a brilliant period about a century after their first introduction. This took place in the early half of the eighteenth century, and the most notable example, The Gentleman's Magazine, alone survived till the twentieth century. Many of the best authors of the day contributed to its pages; and in it appeared essays, poems, records of passing events, and reports of

parliamentary proceedings. It is interesting to note that the traditional "privilege of Parliament" was still thought to be infringed by the publication of debates—although in the contest carried on by Wilkes for the City of London the judges decided that no penalty attached to it—so that Dr Johnson's contributions of these



Double Tea-Caddy (Salt Glaze)

records were thinly disguised as "Debates in Magna Lilliputia," a title which did implicit homage to the political writings of another high Tory, Dean Swift.

The newsletter of the preceding century, which was almost entirely political, was gradually becoming the larger sheet of more general matter, the newspaper; and in *The Universal Chronicle* of 1735-1760 appeared the famous *Idler* series of Johnson's essays. His own journal, which he—most strenuous of men, and incapable of either idling or rambling—called the *Rambler*, had a short life of barely two years, as it

failed to find many readers amongst the political partisans of the day. The political pamphlets, which were so important in the reign of Queen Anne, still continued to appear, and in them were discussed the public matters of the period; but toward the close of our period they were superseded by letters in the newspapers. In this way appeared the famous attacks on the Government signed by the mysterious Junius, in The Public Advertiser of 1770-1772 (see Chapter VI).

2. Until the close of the eighteenth century, people were accustomed to find in the theatre the refreshment and interest which we now gain from books. Many causes contributed to bring about the change which was gradually taking place. The drama, which had been so brilliant in the late Tudor and early Stuart periods, had declined, and stage performances were grotesque rather than moving, and extravagant instead of impressive. The gradual spread of education resulted in many more people being able to read; and this opened new worlds to thousands who in earlier years would have had no concern in books. Thus more books were produced; and the interest in Continental countries aroused in the privileged few who could travel abroad was extended to the literatures of France and Italy.

Another and by no means a trivial cause was that, as homes became more comfortable, there was less desire to find amusement outside. So that by degrees reading became a habit, and largely superseded theatregoing. Hitherto there had been but few examples of English fiction; some extravagant romances and some terrifying tales of horror had gratified the taste for

sensational excitement, but now these were followed by many brilliant and interesting books.

The quarter of a century which saw this striking development was that from 1740-1765, and the novel Pamela, by Samuel Richardson, which led the way, was almost the finest example. The device used for telling the story, that of letters, is a hard one to employ successfully, but in the leisured eighteenth century, when letter-writing itself was a treasured art, and in the kindly hands of the author, it was quite effective. The heroine was a beautiful young maid-servant, whose letters tell the story; and in her we have the first of a long line of good and timid heroines, whose meek virtues defeat all the mean villainies of the strong. After some years Richardson published Clarissa: the History of a Young Lady, and later The History of Sir Charles Grandison. Though only a few people nowadays have time to read these early novels, the names of the principal characters are household words, so popular were they for many years.

The gentle and appealing personalities of Richardson's novels, oddly enough, provoked another man of genius to write a lively burlesque of the famous Pamela; and Henry Fielding, in the story of Joseph Andrews, set the fashion of a robuster type of character, following it soon with the famous Tom Jones. The third of this great trio of novelists was Tobias Smollett, whose Adventures of Roderick Random and Adventures of Peregrine Pickle were the earliest examples of the extravagantly sensational commonplace which for many years replaced the extravagantly sensational

romance.

Sterne's Tristram Shandy belongs also to the begin-

nings of the English novel; and in the same year Dr Johnson brought out his romance, Rasselas, Prince of



Lady's Muff (George IV)

Abyssinia. Few of these stories are still read, except by students, but in 1766 appeared one which is still a general favourite, Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield.

The next novels of note were The History of Evelina and Cecilia,

by Fanny Burney, afterwards Madame d'Arblay, a maid of honour to Queen Charlotte, and a warm admirer and friend of Dr Johnson. She was the first of the women novelists whose writings, as Dr Johnson said, "form no small part of the literary glory of our country." A better-known name is that of her successor, Jane Austen, whose well-written novels, mostly with titles in alliterative words, are familiar to all readers to-day: Pride and Prejudice, Sense and Sensibility, Northanger Abbey, Mansfield Park present an interesting collection of portraits of contemporary life and manners. Her skill and delicacy of finish were admired much by that great writer, Sir Walter Scott, who protested that though he could describe events and persons in the "big bow-wow manner," he could never write with Miss Austen's dainty precision.

Sir Walter Scott, like Defoe and Richardson, did not begin to write prose fiction until he was a middle-aged man. His romances in verse, whose ringing rhymes have been favourites with generations of young readers, Marmion, The Lady of the Lake, and The Lay of the Last Minstrel, were written before 1814, and in that year Waverley, the first of the many prose romances, was published. Before Scott's novels appeared, history had

been imaginatively dealt with only in the drama or in the ballads and lays of heroic deeds which so stirringly commemorate the border warfare. But his books set the fashion, which has been followed by so many writers of the past century, of portraying historical events and personages in fiction. In 1820, when our period closes, *Ivanhoe* appeared.

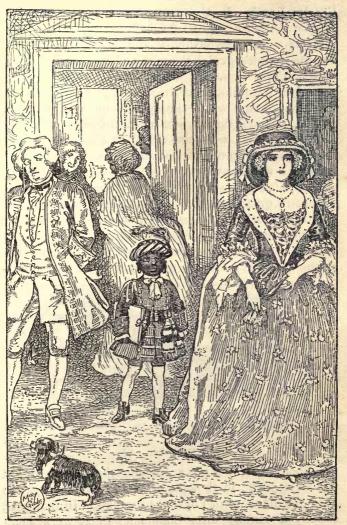
3. Among the other forms of literature for which the first century of Modern England is notable is that of history. Then appeared some of the greatest histories in the language, and one of them, Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, holds as high a place to-day as it did then, although history is a subject in which change of method and elaborate research tend to make early works old-fashioned and . inadequate. Gibbon was the first historian to treat his subject with exactness and yet with largeness; previously works which were interesting were not accurate, whilst those which were accurate were dull. Robertson's History of Scotland and History of the Reign of Charles V, were almost as famous in their day, and the last-named is even now one of the most interesting records of European history. In it the life and times, and achievements, and solemn penance of the illustrious father of Philip II, once so nearly King of England, are shown with all the spirit and charm of romance.

An even more distinguished author, named Adam Smith, wrote the first important book in English on the subject of economics. Its elaborate title, An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations, is generally shortened into The Wealth of Nations. In it are discussed trade, industry, government and

ways of living which make a nation prosperous and happy. It had a deep and far-reaching influence, and its philosophical outlook and calm reasoning first impelled British statesmen to correct the harmful restrictions on trade and production which had hitherto been believed necessary.

Another form of instructive writing which is very familiar now, but was new then, reminds us that the eighteenth century was a time of speculation and argument and reasoning, a time in which people began to be interested in and to think about the why and the wherefore of things, and to desire to find explanations of them. Such collections of information were called encyclopædias, and amongst them was the one whose name is so familiar to us to-day, the Encyclopædia Britannica. Though this work is the only one which has survived to the present day, there was another, which for some years excelled it in fame, the Encyclopædia Metropolitana, designed and chiefly controlled by Samuel Taylor Coleridge, author of The Ancient Mariner, and the friend of Southey and Wordsworth.

4. Another form of literature which became popular in the eighteenth century is that of the essay. In addition to the great name of Addison, whose Spectator reflections upon contemporary characters and events had delighted readers in the last years of Queen Anne, we find Johnson and Burke both contributing to the new prose. The latter writer is better known for his political essays on the Present Discontents and the French Revolution than for his Enquiry into the Sublime and Beautiful. But it is the writer belonging to quite the close of our period who won both the admiration of his own day and that of later generations,



The Antechamber of a Person of Quality

Charles Lamb. In the year 1820 the essays in *The London Magazine* signed "Elia" first appeared. The subjects were quite ordinary and commonplace ones, but the author's genial thought and whimsical raillery were entirely new. In an age which had scarcely got rid of grandiloquence in style and omniscience in treatment, Lamb wrote simply and unaffectedly. He was one of the little group of friends of whom Coleridge and Wordsworth were the chief; so also was William Hazlitt, whose profound studies of literary subjects marked a new departure. Like Coleridge, though less philosophical, he showed his contemporaries what to admire in great literature, and why to admire it. His proud declaration as he lay dying was: "I have written no commonplace, nor a line that licks the dust."

5. Since, as we have seen, the eighteenth century was a time of active reasoning and eager desire for informa-



Pall Mall (about 1780)

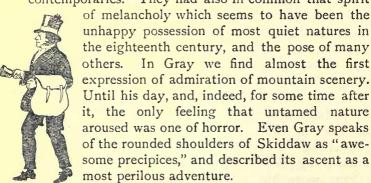
tion about facts, it is not surprising that it was almost the least poetic in thought of any in our history. In 1714 the influence of Pope was supreme. In that year, exactly a century after Chapman's great work, com-

memorated in Keats' famous sonnet, he brought out his translation of Homer's *Iliad*. This, with the *Odyssey*, which he completed some time after, was the most notable example of the poetry of the first half of the century, but his fame has rested rather on his *Satires* and *Epistles* than on his longer works. In these he attacked his contemporaries, in excellent verse but in bitter mood and spiteful tone; the *Dunciad* scourges his literary rivals and opponents, the *Epistles*, his political contemporaries of note. A more elaborate work was his *Essay on Man*; like the lighter examples, it was written in rhyming couplets, and expressed, in the uninspiring method of the time, the need for faith and humility in him who would live aright.

But whilst Pope's verse expressed the cold, reasoning spirit of the age, there was arising another school of poets who looked at nature and at man in a very different way. James Thomson was the first of these; and in his poems we find an appreciation of simple things and natural influences which foreshadowed the genius of Wordsworth. Under the title of The Seasons he pictured four aspects of country life, which after all was the life of by far the greater part of our population. Winter was published in 1726, and was followed by Summer (1727), Spring (1728), and Autumn (1730), when the whole were brought together as The Seasons. The poem faintly recalls the delightful Shepherd's Calendar of Spenser, having stories and legends interspersed with the descriptions. Another of Thomson's longer poems was The Castle of Indolence, in which he employs the metre of Spenser's Faery Oueene: and he is thus a link between the famous Elizabethan and his brilliant disciple, Shelley.

Two other poets of the time were Collins and Gray, both of whom wrote very little, compared with Thomson, but that little was of most exquisite workmanship. They studied the classical poets, and wrote their English verse in imitation of them. Both often used the form of the ode, so majestically handled by Dryden; Gray dealt thus with some of the romantic events in British history. Of these *The Bard*, giving the Welsh view of the English conquest of Wales, is the best known. But it is his reflective poem, *An Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard*, which is most admired and loved.

Both these poets anticipated Tennyson in the music and perfection of their lines, and both, like him, expressed in melodious phrase the thoughts of their contemporaries. They had also in common that spirit



A London Postman of 1838

During the early years of the reign of George III, Oliver Goldsmith, novelist, drama-

tist and verse-writer, brought out his two reflective poems, *The Traveller* and *The Deserted Village*. The latter illustrates the changing conditions of rural England during the transition from agriculture to manufacture, and gives a sympathetic portrait of the

persons whose lives and labours were being so speedily uprooted and altered.

But it is the poets of the close of the century who make the age glorious: Wordsworth, Coleridge, Byron, Shelley and Keats. Many links, besides that of being contemporaries, connect these five poets. Coleridge and Wordsworth were friends as young men, living together and travelling together and keeping in touch with each other in later life. It is interesting to remember that Coleridge's Ancient Mariner and some of Wordsworth's Lyrical Ballads were written in 1797 to earn money for a walking tour abroad. Shelley and Byron became friends when both were young, and Shelley's poem, Julian and Maddalo, commemorates their friendship. The work of Keats was known and admired by both of these, and on his death Shelley wrote his superb elegy Adonais. The "Mountain Shepherds" in that poem are Byron, Moore and Shelley himself, who alike mourn for Adonais.

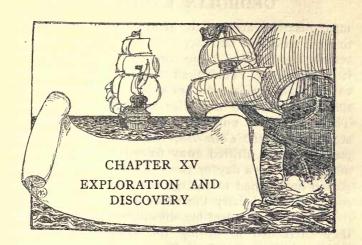
Wordsworth and Coleridge had early shared the hopes and fears aroused by the coming Revolution in France, and were fully in sympathy with the desire for liberty which was beginning to find expression. When, later, the terrible events in Paris shocked all Europe Wordsworth shook off his revolutionary sympathies and declared himself on the side of authority. Shelley, whose ardent spirit could not bear to wait, was often impatient with his older friend for seeming to cease to write in praise of liberty. To the end he himself, a born rebel, always took the side of the oppressed, and indignantly denounced any form of tyranny. So did Byron and, living abroad during the early years of the nineteenth century, he threw himself wholeheartedly

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into the struggle of Greece for independence, even fighting as a volunteer in her war with Turkey. But in 1820, when our period closes, all these great poets were living, and in that year Keats wrote his *Eve of St Agnes*; Shelley some of his loveliest lyrics, as *The Cloud, The Skylark* and *The Sensitive Plant*; and Wordsworth the *Duddon Sonnets*.

Besides these main points of interest in the literature of the period may be mentioned the further one that the gift of letter-writing was at its highest and that letters ranked deservedly as a form of literary art. Among the principal writers were Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, famous also for her advanced and independent views on many things; Gray, the poet; Horace Walpole, son of the great minister; Goldsmith, the author of *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and Lord Chesterfield.





URING the eighteenth century the British dominions had some large additions made to them which have served partly to compensate for the loss of the American colonies. Some were gained by conquest and some by treaty, but by far the greater number by discovery and exploration of hitherto uncharted seas.

The noted voyager, Dampier, whose narratives suggested to Defoe his story of Robinson Crusoe, and who is named in Swift's Gulliver and Brobdingnag, died in 1715. There were some naval expeditions sent out during the next few years for the purpose of finding the North West Passage, but they were not successful. So that until 1739 there was hardly any promise of the many new lands soon to come under the British flag.

In that year Commodore Anson, with a little fleet of eight vessels, set out to seize the Spanish treasure ships off the coast of South America. They met with

many disasters, and lost the greater part of their crews through sickness; but they took a few small Spanish vessels and, sinking some, captured one and added it to their fleet. They then sailed across the Pacific to the Ladrone Islands, but only Anson's own ship, the Centurion, and the prize vessel reached so far. There a curious misfortune befell them. During a stormy night the Centurion, with only three or four men on board, drifted away from the shore and out of sight. After a day or two's perplexity the resolute Anson determined to enlarge the small Spanish ship so that it could carry the entire force.

When almost incredible difficulties were overcome they succeeded in sawing the vessel in half and building in a new section. The work was nearly completed, a month later, when the *Centurion* drifted back! So the explorers broke up their cleverly patched ship into fragments on the beach and sailed away in their own recovered vessel. As they neared Formosa they fell in with a Spanish treasure ship, attacked and captured her and made for home. A long line of waggons with military escort and marching music conveyed the booty from Spithead to London.

One of the midshipmen who made this voyage with Anson was John Byron, grandfather of the poet; and in later years he went exploring on his own account. In 1764 he hoisted the British flag on the Falkland Islands and the St George's Islands. A daring young lieutenant in Byron's ship, named Carteret, carried on the tale of discovery by finding Pitcairn's Island and several hitherto unknown islands in the Polynesian group. Finally, sailing north, he discovered that Dampier's supposed bay was actually a strait, and

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

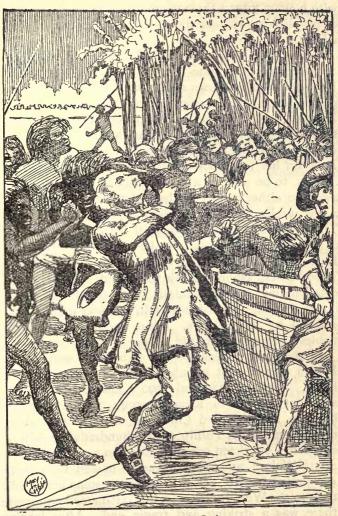
Carteret named the land on the other side of it New Ireland.

But the most famous explorer of the century was Captain Cook. He made two long and successful voyages, and not only discovered new lands, but showed himself wise and gentle in his dealings with their strange inhabitants. His life story is a thrilling and exciting one. He was born in Yorkshire, and before he was eight years old he had begun to work for his living by scaring birds and weeding fields. He was presently apprenticed to a draper in Whitby, and there the sights and sounds of the little fishing town made him resolve to be a sailor. Before his apprenticeship was out he ran away and became a cabin boy on one of the coasting vessels trading from Whitby. In the warlike times of the eighteenth century daring and spirited young men were always wanted in the Royal Navy, and there was no difficulty in passing from a small "tramp" vessel into the service. Thus young Cook had his heart's desire. He worked his way up until he was appointed as lieutenant to one of the surveying ships charting the Newfoundland coast. Next he was offered the command of a ship sent to the Pacific with a party of scientific men. Amongst them were astronomers going to observe the transit of Venus, visible at Tahiti, and naturalists bent on learning something of the plant and animal life of those distant islands. Cook was just the man for such an expedition, as he could not only discover but also describe the new places and people. His little ship was appropriately named the Endeavour, and in this piece of work seems to be an ancestor of the Beagle, in Darwin's romantic story.

After leaving Tahiti, Cook sailed to New Zealand and Tasmania, and explored the whole coasts. He showed a ready ingenuity in naming the various places: an inhospitable landing became Poverty Bay; a new starting-point, Cape Turnagain; a placid inlet crowned with a fertile and flowery shore, which delighted the collectors, Botany Bay. This land he called New South Wales; and, having the misfortune to run aground on a coral reef, waited for repairs at Cape Tribulation, and then explored the river at whose mouth they were, and named it the Endeavour River.

Pressing on northward they touched the island of Java, with its poisonous coast vegetation; and there many of his men and some officers were struck down with sickness and died. This compelled Cook to alter his plans, and for the moment to give up his career of discovery. His careful and intelligent records of the new lands were an entirely novel feature of an explorer's labour, and to them all students of nature and of savage mankind owe a great debt.

Then, setting sail for home, Cook hastened back, after three years' absence, with the news of his discoveries. For his distinguished success he was made commander, and soon was again invited to lead an expedition of peaceful exploration in the southern seas. This time he had two ships, the Resolution and the Adventure. In sailing from Tahiti to New Zealand he found a large island, which he named New Caledonia. The two vessels were separated, and for many months Cook, in the Resolution, knew nothing of the whereabouts of the Adventure; but on leaving the Cape of Good Hope on their way home they came up with the missing vessel. Again he was received in England



Death of Captain Cook

with honour after a three years' voyage; and the story of his discoveries was the most exciting topic for all adventurous spirits.

Once more, after a few months' rest, Captain Cook set out again, this time to try to find the North West Passage. With his own ship, the Resolution, and a companion vessel, the Discovery, he once more reached New Zealand, finding further new islands on the way. Then he made for the coast of America, and along to its western extremity. With America on his right and Asia on his left Cook pressed on through Behring's Straits, to be met by a solid wall of ice stretching far away on either hand. So he had to turn back, and in a few weeks' time was amongst the Sandwich Islands. Through an unfortunate quarrel between the natives of Hawaii and his sailors, he had to overawe the Hawaiians by permitting his men to fire on them. Then he went ashore to settle the dispute, and his gentle commanding presence might have compelled peace, but that in the confusion he fell, and was immediately stabbed by the savages. Thus perished one of the noblest and most intrepid of our British explorers.

In the closing years of the eighteenth century the British Government set about using some of the new lands. Between 1780 and 1790 a chartered company sent out vessels to King George's Sound to trade between America and China; a small fleet of ships, under Commander Phillip, carried hundreds of unwilling emigrants, convicted prisoners, to form a colony in New South Wales; and a certain vessel, named the Bounty, was despatched to Tahiti to transport some breadfruit-trees to the West Indies. To this last-named enterprise there was a striking and tragic end. After leaving

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

Tahiti the crew mutinied; and the captain and his few supporters were cast adrift in an open boat, with a scanty allowance of food.

Marvellous to relate, the boat reached the shores of New Holland in safety, and the commander made his way home with his mortifying story. The mutineers, after a short stay at Tahiti, took with them native wives and settled on Pitcairn's Island. Nineteen years later, when a British ship called at the island, it was found that John Adams, the ringleader, had outlived his companions, and was chief of a little semi-savage colony of fifty persons.

Commander Phillip, with his unpromising colony of criminals, settled down at Sydney, and by his wise government made a peaceable beginning of the long experiment of peopling Australia with convicted prisoners. Later on Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) was colonized in the same way and, finally, West Australia. When, however, numbers of energetic free emigrants had gone to all these places it was found that to continue to use them as prison settlements would be harmful to all the other inhabitants, and the practice was given up. But in 1820, the close of our period, the chief idea conveyed to the minds of stay-athome British people by the names Australia, Tasmania and Botany Bay was that of convict settlements.

The fine climate, rich soil and luxuriant vegetation of Australia gave promise of its future wealth, but few of its first settlers could have imagined that their grand-children would know it as a great pasture-land for sheep and cattle reared and fattened, and sold as food, etc., to the mother country, to the value of £40,000,000 per annum.

In later years the name of the Australian "bush" was to become very familiar here at home.

The old explorer Dampier, a hundred years before the first colony settled there, thus describes what he saw of Australia: "Of trees or shrubs there are divers sorts, but none above ten feet high; their bodies about three feet about, and five or six feet high before you come to the branches, which are bushy and composed of small twigs, these spreading abroad, though thick-set and full of leaves, which were mostly long and narrow. The colour of the leaves was on one side whitish, and on the other green; and the bark of the trees was generally of the same colour with the leaves of a pale green."

A traveller writing in the nineteenth century says of New Zealand: "Every kind of natural beauty in this world is found beneath the Southern Cross; bold, rocky, island-studded coast lines to rolling hills and level plains; from towering volcanoes to a wonderland of hot lakes; from inaccessible peaks of eternal ice and snow, where avalanches wake the echoes of a hundred valleys, to the depths of mighty flords; from great cold lakes to fierce broad rivers; a land of ideal summer haunts where, among wildernesses of ferns and mosses, the sunshine steals in and goes to sleep."

In 1791 the Pacific was still further explored. Captain Vancouver was sent out to survey thoroughly the coasts of New Zealand and Australia, gave his name to the large island previously called Nootka and, besides compiling charts and maps of the various waterways and inlets, claimed for Great Britain the Sandwich Islands and Columbia.

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

The continent of Africa, so familiar to us by name in the present day, was, until far into the nineteenth century, a veritable "Dark Continent," a Great Lone Land. In 1815 Mungo Park-who, in his own modest account of his exploration says, "I had a passionate desire to examine into the productions of a country so little known . . . and I knew I was able to bear fatigue . . ."-was commissioned by Lord Camden and others to trace the River Niger from its mouth to its source, and to visit the principalities, especially Timbuctoo. This he did, and pushed his way on to the Gambia, facing many deadly perils of poisonous swamps as well as those of wild animals and savage tribes. Sometimes, however, he met with unexpected and gracious hospitality, as his narrative shows. He was approaching the neighbourhood of the King of Bombassa when a messenger informed him that he must on no account cross the river or come any nearer until the king knew his errand and sent his permission. So the traveller set off for a village to rest there, but so alarmed the natives that they would not allow him to approach the huts, and he prepared to spend the night under a tree. At sundown a woman returning from work in the fields stopped, and was made to understand that he was hungry and tired. She led him to her hut, spread a mat on the floor, broiled him some fish, and went on with her indoor task of spinning cotton with her daughter. "They lightened their labour by singing songs," writes the traveller, "and I found that one was about me! It was sung by one of the young women, the rest joining in a sort of chorus: 'The winds roared and the rains fell: the poor white man, faint and weary, came and sat under our tree. He has no

mother to bring him milk, no wife to grind his corn.' And then in chorus: 'Let us pity the poor white man; no mother has he.' In the morning I presented my compassionate hostess with two of the four brass buttons which remained on my waistcoat, the only recompense I could make her."

In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries there was no struggle amongst the European nations for colonies, or territory, or "influence," in Africa; they merely desired to trade. Hence little settlements, such as have been described, as the East India Company's stations in India, were dotted along the west coast, and much sale and barter went on for gold and ivory and, alas! slaves.

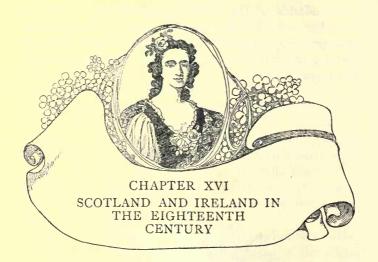
South Africa had similar small beginnings. The Dutch East India Company had settled at the Cape of Good Hope but, in the French wars, Holland, losing her independence, could no longer protect her traders. By the Treaty of Amiens the Dutch were again allowed control; but when Britain was in the thick of her struggle against Napoleon she sought to strike at French power and influence wherever she could, and so attacked their Dutch dependants at the Cape, and seized the territory. In 1814 the Treaty of Paris secured her supremacy there, but only over the extreme southern part; and when, a little later, she purchased from Holland and her ruler Cape Colony, and what was afterwards known as British Guiana, the extent of her territory was rather less than that of the Cape Colony of to-day.

The next period, under Lord Charles Somerset as Governor of Cape Colony, is one of Kaffir wars, occasioned by the incursions of the natives into the

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

pasture-lands of the settlers. Beyond the Cape district lay the almost unknown country of the fast-disappearing Hottentots, Namaquas and Damaras, and for many years yet Africa was to remain a "Dark Continent."





E know how full of romantic and stirring interest is the earlier history of Scotland, and its later history is quite as distinguished for its constitutional and political importance. There used to be a popular jest to the effect that the coming discoverer of the North Pole would certainly find a Scotsman already there. This tribute to the national characteristics of perseverance and resolution is fully deserved; and it is largely through their influence that the Union of England and Scotland has been so beneficial to both countries. In contrasting its effects with those of the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, nearly a century later, we regretfully notice a great difference.

Seven years before our period opens, the political Union of Scotland and England had taken place.



Customs Officers attacked by Smugglers

Although since the accession of James I (James VI of Scotland) to the English throne, there had been one crown, the sister kingdom had its own legislature, and its own parliament. At the Union in 1707 the Scottish Parliament was dissolved and a fair representation in the English Parliament given instead. The Scottish House of Lords was to elect sixteen of its number to sit at Westminster, and Scottish constituencies to return forty-five members to the House of Commons. Owing to the redistribution of parliamentary representation and the growth of populous places since 1707 there has since been a considerable increase in this number.

During the first years of the Union there was naturally a good deal of discontent, and a strong "Nationalist" party, as it was called, pressed for independence again. The Jacobite Rising of 1715 was largely an outcome of this, and of the resentment caused by George I's dismissal of the Earl of Mar from the post of Secretary for Scotland. At once the malcontents had a figurehead and a leader. The failure of the revolt left Scotland exhausted with the struggle, for severe punishment was meted out to the insurgents. Besides the beheading of actual leaders, and transportation of their followers, numbers of landed gentlemen forfeited their estates.

The ill-judged and unpopular salt-tax, when extended to Scotland, caused great discontent and, together with the malt-tax (part of Walpole's excise scheme), gave a good rallying cry: "No Union! No Salt-tax! No Malt-tax! No Wooden Shoes!" This last was an indirect allusion to the rule of absolute monarchy in France which the new arbitrary regulations were imitating. The

officer appointed to collect the tax was mobbed, and his house burnt down (1725).

It should be remembered that the conditions of life and the habits of the people differed entirely in the Lowlands from those in the Highlands. The former were naturally the first to accustom themselves to the new state of things, whose economic advantages gradually made themselves felt. Large estate owners adopted the new ideas in farming, and in laying out parks and gardens. About 1740 the first grinding mill for barley, a grain universally used for broth, was introduced into the country; and by degrees the primitive "stones" disappeared from the cottages. A few years later the potato began to be cultivated in Scotland; and some of the lairds led the way in the fresh departure of growing turnips and other "roots" as food for cattle.

By slow degrees, too, the rough tracks between towns were widened and made into roads, replacing the narrow "causeways," or corduroy tracks made by logs of timber laid side by side, which led over undrained marshes and through uncleared woods. Goods were conveyed, not in waggons, but on pack-horses, which travelled in a long train in single file. So essential are good roads to progress and social well-being that the early makers of them deserve to be remembered as public benefactors. Wade was one such, who accomplished in the Scottish lowlands something of the same kind of work as that of Telford, the engineer, in England, some fifty years later. The famous Macadam, whose name has been given to the metalled surface of a made road, was an Ayrshire man. Very slowly, however, did the turnpike or toll-house system make

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its way northward, even though it was just as great an advance on any road system since Roman days as the present system is on that of the turnpike.

One of the most noticeable differences resulting from the Union was the rapid growth of Glasgow. It is curious to learn that in its early days the Glasgow shipping trade was supplied with materials from Whitehaven boats and barges; for many years now Glasgow has been one of the greatest industrial centres in the kingdom, and Whitehaven a small fishing port. The local trade in herrings and woollens became gradually supplemented with foreign products; sugar (then a luxury) and tobacco being the principal. Thus communication was established between our sugar and tobacco planters in the West Indies and the consumers on the Continent. By 1720 some Glasgow-owned merchant ships engaged in the British carrying trade; and the English ports, Bristol and Liverpool, saw with jealous dismay this rival to themselves.

The Highlands were much slower in adapting themselves to the quieter industrial state of things, and it took a long time for the clans to settle down into peaceful sheep and cattle farmers instead of "raiding" a neighbouring glen for their supplies. Nor would they accept the Established Church services, or recognize King George as their lawful sovereign. But they were so far removed from the highways of commerce or intercourse, and so shut off by the wild mountains and moors, that but little was known of them by the southerners. The stories that have come down to us wear a glow of romance due to sentiment and distance, but the actual conditions were probably harsh and sordid. One reminder we have with us to-day of the

slow conquest of social order over barbarous clan strife, in the name of the famous "Black Watch" regiment. A body of armed guards was formed, wearing the dark green tartan uniform of a Scottish clan instead of the British scarlet, and were placed in garrisons in the most disturbed districts. A few years later this was made into a regiment of the regular army, and its old name clung to it.

Then in 1745 occurred the second Stuart Rising, to be at first more successful than the earlier, but ultimately to end in disaster (see Chapter III). The militant spirit was very judiciously absorbed in the many Scottish regiments formed for service abroad; and any account of the army and its units bears eloquent witness to the valour and gallantry of the Scots. For forty years, however, the Scottish regiments were used exclusively for foreign service.

An interesting evidence that in the Union Scotland became, as she demanded, an equal partner, and not a subordinate, exists in the fact that in Church matters and legal matters she retained her own forms. So that where Church and State join, as in public holidays, Scottish usage differs considerably from English, 1st January and not 25th and 26th December being

statutory holidays.

The decisions of the High Court of Justice in civil cases go to the House of Lords on appeal, but in criminal cases the High Court is supreme. The jury system also differs somewhat: the jurors number fifteen instead of twelve; it is not essential, as in England, that all shall agree in the verdict; and there is, besides the familiar "Guilty" and "Not Guilty" of our own custom, a third one, "Not Proven." Toward the year 1820 some reforms

brought Scottish law and usage rather nearer to our own, but they still differ in many important respects.

It is possible to gain a very fair idea of the struggling life of an ordinary Scottish yeoman of the eighteenth century from that of the poet Burns. He and his brother were the two sons of a small farmer who had formerly been gardener to an Ayrshire laird. Robert and his brother at the age of six attended school for a short time and were later taught reading by their father, his reading-book being the Bible. Then they went to school for a few months to learn writing, and



State Coach, Hogarth's Time

Robbie carried on his study of arithmetic so far as to master the rudiments of mensuration. Then we read of him and his brother working on their father's little farm at a yearly wage of seven pounds; and presently the brothers embarked on the great enterprise of having a farm of their own. But, like so many other small undertakings, the farm did not prosper; and the factor, or bailiff, of the large estate of which it was part was always demanding the rent before the tenants were ready with it. It was during this period that Burns wrote some of his most winning verse—The Mountain

Daisy, the opening line of which runs, "Wee, modest, crimson-tippèd flow'r"; and To a Mouse, whose little nest the plough destroyed, which concludes,

"Still thou art blest, compared wi' me!
The present only touches thee;
But, och, I backward cast my e'e
On prospects drear,
And forward, tho' I canna' see,
I guess and fear!"

He almost resolved to emigrate to the West Indies, and seek work as manager of a plantation, but had no money for his fare. His brother and a friend suggested publishing his poems, of which he had now produced quite a number, composing them as he went about his labours on the farm, and writing them out in the evenings. So in 1786 his poems first appeared in print; but this brought him other friends, and through them his intentions were changed, and he went to live at Edinburgh. Presently he took a farm again, and combined with it the post of "Exciseman" for the district. Later on he had a better appointment in the Excise, and showed daring and ingenuity enough to outwit the smugglers of the day. On one small craft which he seized were some small cannon, and these he bought, and sent to the French Convention (1795), as a gift from a lover of liberty.

The transition to modern ways and methods, though on the whole prosperous and speedy in the Lowlands, pressed hardly on the Highlanders; and the placenames "New Caledonia" and "Nova Scotia" tell us still of the stream of Scottish emigrants who sought

the new world in the eighteenth century.

In 1803 the poet Wordsworth and his sister made a tour through the Highlands, and his "Journal" records the primitive condition of the people in remote glens and mountain villages, while in his poems, To a Highland Girl, The Solitary Reaper and The Blind Highland Boy, he brings before us the lonely and laborious lives they lived.

Ireland at the beginning of the Georgian era was in a most disturbed and unhappy state. The severities which accompanied the Revolution of 1688 were still remembered, and the British Government sought, not to remove the causes of discontent, but to silence its expression. Besides the trade legislation, which imposed heavy restrictions on Irish exports and forbade imports, except from England, the right of the Irish House of Lords to settle civil cases on appeal was taken away by Act of Parliament in 1719; and the claim was asserted that the English Parliament had the right to legislate for Ireland. Then, a few years later, the Government authorized the minting of bronze coins, alloyed and of light weight, for use in Ireland, by a private ironmaster; and it was resented especially because the profit thereon was believed to be given to a Court favourite (Chapter II).

A permanent element of strife in the relations of England and Ireland was the difference of creed the majority of the people being Roman Catholics and thus disqualified to hold any public office or dignity. At the same time, the Irish Protestants had real grievances, for the unrepealed Schism Act and Test Act pressed heavily upon them and they emigrated in large numbers to America, there to be

free from religious restrictions. It is noticeable that, whilst the shores of the new world reproduce the old British names with great frequency, hardly any Irish ones are there repeated. Carteret attempted to found a "New Ireland" (Chapter XV), but it was never peopled with Irish, and was afterwards ceded to Germany, to be known as Neu Mecklenburg. There was also a "New Ulster," but it became changed to "North Island," and no Irish settlers seem to have reproduced names of towns and villages as English and Scottish colonists have done. The home-sickness of the exile is of another sort than that of the colonist, and probably Irish emigrants have felt themselves the former rather than the latter.

In the Irish Parliament of the eighteenth century, as in our own, there were two well-marked parties: the one supported the authority of the British Parliament, and willingly framed all its legislation in deference to it; and the other, which we may call the "Patriotic" or "Nationalist" party, strove for political independence. Like the early struggles of the French revolutionaries, the principles and aims of the latter party attracted the attention of many able and intellectual thinkers not directly concerned. While the former stood for progress, the "patriotic" members, in many ways the reactionary party, were disposed to resist all reforms that suggested English ideas or English pressure, while they had no power to initiate a better state of things themselves.

But in many places besides Ireland itself there was felt much interest in and also sympathy for the "Nationalist" ideal. The Roman Catholics, who had no political privileges whatever, though they were by

far the larger number of the people, of necessity supported the Nationalist side in the political struggle between the two countries. When the quarrel began between the British Parliament and the American colonies, the Irish "patriots" saw a way of compelling attention to their grievances. They enrolled large numbers of volunteer soldiers to protect the country, whose troops had been sent to subdue the colonies. Then in Parliament, led by Henry Grattan, they demanded "Free Trade," and called upon the British Government to remove the protective restrictions they had laid down.

To this demand the Government yielded, having its hands full and fearing a general uprising; and further concessions to Catholics and to Puritans were made in the repeal of the harsh laws of inheritance and the Test Act. Two or three years later the "patriots," still under Grattan's leadership, demanded freedom for the Irish Parliament in legislation and administration, and in 1782 this was granted. For eighteen years the Irish Parliament was free and independent. But in the disturbed times of the French Revolution the breathings of discontent grew to murmurings, and murmurings to action. The country was poor, Catholics might vote, but might take no active part in public affairs; "absentee" landlords and an ignorant peasantry merely exhausted the land. Unhappy and disheartened men formed themselves into societies and unions, secret or otherwise, seeking to change, or even to overturn, the established state of things. Then originated the "Orangemen," who by the name flaunted the Revolution of 1688 and the dominance of England in the eyes of the Catholics. The

"United Irishmen" sank religious differences in their demand for reforms, especially that of entire separation from Great Britain. A fiery, ardent spirit, Wolfe Tone, led this adventure, but ill-advisedly attempted to bring about a French invasion of Ireland. It failed, and in it he lost his life, but his place was taken in the troubled times that followed by Lord Edward Fitzgerald. The British Government, which in many cases, notably that of the colonies, refused to believe in the seriousness of any rebellion, was always ready to believe Ireland in a dangerous state and now, as previously, enforced the severest repressive measures. At Vinegar Hill the Government forces completely overcame the armed resistance, and the Rebellion of '98 became a painful memory, to be quoted in the future with hot and angry hearts.

The next year Lord Cornwallis, the successful administrator of India, was appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and his rule was just and firm to all parties. But there could be no restoration of independence to the Irish Parliament, and Pitt determined to bring in an Act of Union. The British Parliament carried it readily enough, but to gain the consent of the Irish Parliament was no easy matter. No party greatly desired it; the "patriots" were quite opposed, the many indifferent members preferred, on the whole, Irish independence. So that the bad old practices of bribery and secret promises of advantage or gain were adopted wholesale to buy out opposition, and they succeeded. To remove Catholic objections, Pitt announced the Government's intention to grant full emancipation from all disabilities. But though he was strong enough to bring about the political Union, which gratified both

George III and his people, he found himself quite unable to stand against the sovereign's determination to show no leniency to his Catholic subjects. Hence the Catholic disabilities continued for another thirty years.

The conditions of union were by no means so beneficial to Ireland as had been those in the Union with Scotland. The political terms were much the same: to replace the Irish House of Lords, twenty-eight of their number, elected by themselves, sit in the British House of Lords, and each holds his seat for life. The Irish constituencies were to return members to the House of Commons. But the lack of unity amongst the Irish people, the recent rebellion and the poverty of the country prevented the making of anything like terms of equality as to trade, or the retaining of an existing legal system. Indeed everything Irish was, as far as possible, remodelled on English lines; and the disappointment felt by the failure to remove the Catholic disabilities affected the new state of things disastrously. In 1802 a further revolution was planned, but ended in confusion, and its leader, Robert Emmet, was captured and hanged. So strongly, however, burnt the flame of liberty that soon another leader arose, Daniel O'Connell, the "Liberator," and round him centred the hopes of the "Nationalists" for the next thirty years.

We saw how, in the pacification of the Highlands, the formation of Highland regiments drafted off many restless spirits of the population (Chapter III), and that in this military activity they won a high reputation for valour instead of a name for disaffection. Not until fifty years later was a similar opportunity given

to Ireland, but in 1800 the concession was made, and it is said that, before the battle of Waterloo, over 100,000 Irishmen had entered the British army. They won fame in Wellington's campaigns, and for personal valour and regimental honours hold a record to-day second to none in the British army.





CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

A.D.	
1714	Death of Anne. Accession of George I.
1715	Stuart Rebellion in favour of the Old Pretender.
	Battle of Sheriff Muir.
1718	Admiral Byng defeats the Spanish Fleet.
1719	A statute passed whereby all laws passed in England
	apply also to Ireland.
1720	The South Sea Bubble.

- Walpole restores public credit.
 Wood allowed to issue copper coinage to Ireland.
- Treaty of Hanover signed by Great Britain, France
- and Prussia.

 1727 Death of George I. Accession of George II.
- 1733 Walpole brings in his Excise Scheme, and abandons it.
- 1736 Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.
- 1737 Death of Queen Caroline.
- 1738 Incident of Jenkins' ear.
- 1739 Declaration of War with Spain.
- 1740 War between Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa.
- 1743 Battle of Dettingen.
- 1744 Broad Bottom Administration.
- 1745 Second Stuart Rebellion.
 Battle of Preston Pans.
 Battle of Fontenoy.
- 1746 Battle of Culloden Moor.

 Madras surrenders to the French.
- 1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Madras restored.
- 1751 Capture of Arcot by Clive.

 Trichinopoly surrendered by the French.

A.D. Settlement of Fort Duquesne on the Ohio. 1754 Defeat of Braddock at Fort Duquesne.

Black Hole of Calcutta tragedy.

Opening of the Seven Years' War.

Execution of Byng. 1757 Battle of Plassey. Convention of Klosterseven.

1756

Capture of Fort Duquesne. 1758

Capture of Quebec. 1759

1760 Death of George II. Accession of George III.

War declared by England against Spain. 1762

End of the Seven Years' War. 1763 Peace of Paris between England, France, Spain and Portugal.

Arrest of Wilkes.

1764 Riots in favour of Wilkes.

1765 Stamp Act passed. 1766 Stamp Act repealed.

Riots in favour of Wilkes. His imprisonment. 1768 Cook's voyage to Australia.

The "Boston Tea Party." 1773

Battle of Bunker's Hill. 1775

United States' Declaration of Independence. 1776 British evacuate Boston.

Rodney defeats the Spanish off Cape St Vincent. 1780 Russia, Sweden and Denmark form an "armed neutrality" against Great Britain. "No Popery" Riots.

Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. 1781

Rodney defeats de Grasse in the West Indies. 1782 England acknowledges the independence of the United States.

Fox's India Bill thrown out. 1783

Pitt's India Bill passed. 1784

Impeachment of Warren Hastings. 1786

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

1789	Fall of the Bastille.
1792	Austria and Prussia invade France.
1793	Louis XVI guillotined.
1794	Lord Howe's victory. First of June.
1795	Directory established in France.
	Capture of Cape of Good Hope.
	Spain declares war against England.
1797	French and Spaniards defeated off Cape St Vincent.
	Mutiny in the Navy.
1798	Battle of the Nile.
1700	Buonaparte becomes Consul.

- 1799 Buonaparte becomes Consul.
- 1800 Act for the Union of England and Ireland passed.
- 1801 Defeat of French at Alexandria.

 Danish Fleet destroyed off Copenhagen.
- 1802 Peace of Amiens.

A.D.

- 1804 Buonaparte proclaimed Emperor.
- 1805 Cape Colony taken from the Dutch. Battle of Trafalgar. Death of Nelson.
- 1807 Act for the Abolition of Slave Trade passed.
- 1808 The Peninsular War. French defeated at Vimiero.
- 1809 French defeated at Corunna. Death of Sir John Moore.
- 1812 Battle of Salamanca.
- 1815 Battle of Waterloo.
- 1819 Manchester Massacre. "Peterloo."
- 1820 Death of George III. Accession of George IV.









